# LINGUISTIC SURVEY OF INDIA

# VOL. 111.

# TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY

PART III

SPECIMENS OF THE KUKI-CHIN AND BURMA GROUPS

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### PART III

## SPECIMENS OF THE KUKI-CHIN AND BURMA GROUPS

COMPILED AND EDITED BY

G. A. GRIERSON, K.C.I.E., PH.D., D.LITT, LL.D. I.C.S. (RETD.)



MOTILAL BANARSIDASS
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#### **◎MOTILAL** BANARSIDASS

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October 20, 1966.

Dear Sri Sundarlal,

Thank you very much for undertaking the task of republication of Grierson's LINGUISTIC SURVEY OF INDIA. It is a pleasure to know that you were able to complete the republication of the 50 volumes of Max Muller's 'Sacred Books of the East' within 3 years. Your work, I may assure you, is of the greatest value to the intellectuals of the world.

With the best wishes,

Yours sincerely,

(S. Radhakrishnan)

Sri Sundarlal, Motilal Banarsidass, Post Box 1586, Bungalow Road, Jawaharnagar, Delhi-7

### LINGUISTIC SURVEY OF INDIA.

#### SYSTEM OF TRANSLITERATION ADOPTED.

A.—For the Deva-nagari alphabet, and others related to it—

चाव, चावे, इंं, ईंं, उप, कांं, ऋ गं, पृं, एंं, ऐंं वं, घोंंं, घोंंंं, घोंंंं या. ख kha गुव घ gha ङ na च cha क chha ज ja भा jha ज ña a ka ह dha प na य tha ध dha न na z tha s da z ta त ta र da प pa फ pha च ba भ bka म ma य ya ₹ ra ल la a va or wa Æ lha. A śa u sha ₹ ha **z** rha æ la स 80 ₹ ra

Visarga (:) is represented by h, thus क्रमण: kramaśah. Anuswāra (') is represented by m, thus सिंह simh, वंश vamś. In Bengali and some other languages it is pronounced ng, and is then written ng.; thus राज्य bangśa. Anunāsika or Chandra-bindu is represented by the sign over the letter nasalized, thus में mē.

B.—For the Arabic alphabet, as adapted to Hindustānī—

```
\epsilon^{j}
    a, etc.
             & ch
   b
             τ <sup>h</sup>
                          i z
\psi p
                                       ; zh
ے t
۾ ث
                                                                  when representing anundsika
                                                                    in Dēva-nāgarī, by over
                                                                    nasalized vowel.
                                                                  w or v
                                                              a h
                                                              y, etc.
```

Tanwīn is represented by n, thus غُرِراً fauran. Alif-i maqəūra is represented by  $\bar{a}$ ;— thus, نعوى  $da'w\bar{a}$ .

In the Arabic character, a final silent h is not transliterated,—thus banda. When pronounced, it is written,—thus, banda.

Vowels when not pronounced at the end of a word, are not written in transliteration. Thus, an ban, not bana. When not pronounced in the middle of a word or only slightly pronounced in the middle or at the end of a word, they are written in small characters above the line. Thus (Hindī) teat dēkh\*tā, pronounced dēkhtā; (Kāśmīrī) te h; and kar\*, pronounced kor; (Bihārī) teat dēkhath.

- C.—Special letters peculiar to special languages will be dealt with under the head of the languages concerned. In the meantime the following more important instances may be noted:—
  - (a) The ts sound found in Marāṭhī (ব), Puṣḥtō (২), Kāśmīrī (ৣ, ব), Tibetan (হ), and elsewhere, is represented by <u>ts</u>. So, the aspirate of that sound is represented by <u>ts</u>h.
  - (b) The dz sound found in Marāṭhī (ज), Puṣḥtō (¿), and Tibetan (≦) is represented by dz, and its aspirate by dzh.
  - (c) Kāśmīrī ্র্ (জ্) is represented by ñ.
  - (d) Sindhī في, Western Panjābī (and elsewhere on the N.-W. Frontier) بن, and Puṣḥtō بن or ن are represented by n.
  - (e) The following are letters peculiar to Puṣḥtō:—

     t; ts or dz, according to pronunciation; vd; r; zh or g, according to pronunciation; vd; yr; zh or zh
  - (f) The following are letters peculiar to Sindhī:—  $\downarrow bb; \downarrow bh; \stackrel{\cdot}{=} th; \stackrel{\cdot}{\hookrightarrow} t; \stackrel{\cdot}{\hookrightarrow} th; \stackrel{\cdot}{=} ph; \stackrel{\cdot}{=} jj; \stackrel{\cdot}{\leftrightarrow} jh; \stackrel{\cdot}{=} chh;$   $\downarrow \tilde{n}; \stackrel{\circ}{\to} dh; \stackrel{\circ}{\to} dq; \stackrel{\circ}{\to} dq; \stackrel{\circ}{\to} dh; \stackrel{\cdot}{\hookrightarrow} k; \stackrel{\cdot}{\hookrightarrow} gg; \stackrel{\circ}{\to} gh;$   $\downarrow \tilde{n}; \stackrel{\circ}{\to} n.$
- D.—Certain sounds, which are not provided for above, occur in transcribing languages which have no alphabet, or in writing phonetically (as distinct from transliterating) languages (such as Bengali) whose spelling does not represent the spoken sounds. The principal of these are the following:—
  - $\vec{a}$ , represents the sound of the a in all.
  - $\tilde{a}$ , , , a in hat.
  - $\check{e}$ , , , e in met.
  - $\check{o}$ , , , o in hot.
  - e, " " é in the French était.
  - o, , , o in the first o in promote.
  - ö, " " " ö in the German schön.
  - ü, " " " " " ü in the " mühe.
  - th, , , th in think.
  - dh, , th in this.

The semi-consonants peculiar to the Munda languages are indicated by an apostrophe. Thus  $k^2$ ,  $t^2$ ,  $p^2$ , and so on.

E.—When it is necessary to mark an accented syllable, the acute accent is used. Thus in (Khōwār) ássistai, he was, the acute accent shows that the accent falls on the first, and not, as might be expected, on the second syllable.

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### KUKI-CHIN GROUP.



#### GENERAL INTRODUCTION.

The territory inhabited by the Kuki-Chin tribes extends from the Nága Hills in the Geographical distribution.

Geographical distribution.

from the Myittha river in the east, almost to the Bay of Bengal in the west. It is almost entirely filled up by hills and mountain ridges, separated by deep valleys.

A great chain of mountains suddenly rises from the plains of Eastern Bengal, about

220 miles north of Calcutta, and stretches castward in a broadening mass of spurs and ridges, called successively the Garo, Khasia, and Nága Hills. The elevation of the highest points increases towards the east, from about 3,000 feet in the Garo Hills to 8,000 and 9,000 in the region of Manipur.

This chain merges, in the east, into the spurs which the Himalayas shoot out from the north of Assam towards the south. From here a great mass of mountain ridges starts southwards, enclosing the alluvial valley of Manipur, and thence spreads out westwards to the south of Sylhet. It then runs almost due north and south, with cross-ridges of smaller elevation, through the districts known as the Chin Hills, the Lushai Hills, Hill Tipperah, and the Chittagong Hill tracts. Farther south the mountainous region continues, through the Arakan Hill tracts, and the Arakan Yoma, until it finally sinks into the sea at Cape Negrais, the total length of the range being some seven hundred miles.

The greatest elevation is found to the north of Manipur. Thence it gradually diminishes towards the south. Where the ridge enters the north of Arakan it again rises, with summits upwards of 8,000 feet high, and here a mass of spurs is thrown off in all directions. Towards the south the western off-shoots diminish in length, leaving a track of alluvial land between them and the sea, while in the north the eastern off-shoots of the Arakan Yoma run down to the banks of the Irawaddy.

This vast mountainous region, from the Jaintia and Nága Hills in the north, is the home of the Kuki-Chin tribes. We find them, besides, in the valley of Manipur, and, in small settlements, in the Cachar Plains and Sylhet.

The Kuki-Chin Group.

The Kuki-Chin Group.

Two main divisions.

Two main divisions.

The Kuki-Chin Group.

Two main divisions.

Two main divisions.

Two main divisions.

Kuki-Chin is a purely conventional one, there being no proper name comprising all these tribes. Meithei-Chin would be a better appellation, as the whole group can be subdivided into two sub-groups, the Meitheis and the various tribes which are known to us under the names of Kuki and Chin. I have, however, to avoid confusion, retained the old terminology.

The words 'Kuki' and The words Kuki and Chin are synonymous and are both used for many of the hill tribes in question.

Kuki is an Assamese or Bengali term, applied to various hill tribes, such as the Lushēis, Rāngkhöls, Thādos, etc. It seems to have been known at a comparatively early period. In the Rāj Mālā, Šiva is stated to have fallen in love with a Kuki woman, and the Kukis are mentioned in connection with the Tipperah Raja Chachag, who flourished about 1512 A.D.

The word Kuki is, more especially, used to denote the various tribes which have successively been driven from the Lushai and Chin Hills into the surrounding country to the north and west. The tribes which first emigrated from Lushai land into Cachar, the Rāngkhōls and Bētēs with their off-shoots, are generally distinguished as Old Kuki; while it has become customary to use the term New Kuki to denote the Thādos, Jangshēns, and their off-shoots. These latter tribes had driven the so-called Old Kukis out of Lushai land, and were afterwards themselves driven out by the Lushēis.

The terms Old Kuki and New Kuki are apt to convey the idea that the tribes so denoted are closely related to each other. But that is not the case. Not only do their customs and institutions differ considerably, but their languages are separated by a large group of dialects in the Lushai and Chin Hills. The so-called New Kukis are, so far as we can see, a Chin tribe, most closely related to the inhabitants of the Northern Chin Hills, while the Old Kukis are related to tribes more to the south. I have therefore abandoned the use of the title New Kuki, but have retained the name Old Kuki for want of a better word to denote a language which we know in many dialects, such as Rāngkhōl, Bētē, Aimol, Hallām, and others.

Chin is a Burmese word used to denote the various hill tribes living in the country between Burma and the Provinces of Assam and Bengal. It is written and dialectically pronounced Khyang. The name is not used by the tribes themselves, who use titles such as Zo or Yo and Shö.

McRae records a tradition among the 'Kukis,' according to which they and the

Maghs are descended from two brothers, the younger being the progenitor of the Kukis. There can, of course, be attributed little or no importance to this tradition; but this much is certain, that the Kuki-Chin languages belong to the Burmese branch of the Tibeto-Burman family.

The history of the Kuki-Chin tribes is only known from comparatively modern times.

With the exception of the Meitheis, who have been settled in the Manipur valley for more than a thousand years, all the Kuki-Chin tribes appear to have lived in a nomadic state for some centuries. It would seem that they all settled in the Lushai and Chin Hills some time during the last two centuries, and this country may be considered as the place where their languages have developed their chief characteristics.

Their total number may be estimated at between 600,000 and 1,000,000. There are, however, no reliable statistics available, most of the local returns being mere estimates. The total 600,000 is based on the information collected for the Linguistic Survey.

The details are as follows:-

	Meithei	٠			•			•			240,637
II.	Chin languages :										•
	1. Northern Group					•					60,345
	a. Thado	•	•	•		•	•		31,4	37	
	b. Soktē	•	•		•	•			9,0	05	
	c. Si <del>yi</del> n			•	•			•	1,7	770	
	d. Ralte	•	•	•	•				18,1	133	
	e. Paitē	•	•	•	٠	•	•	•	í	•	
								•	60,5	245	
									00,0	) <del>1</del> 0	
					Carr	ied ov	er				300.982

						В	rongh	it forward		300,982
2. Central Group						•		•	•	107,604
a. Tashān						•		39,215		
b. Lai						•		22,450		
c. Lakher		•		•		•		1.100		
d. Lushēi				•		•		40,539		
c. Banjogi								500		
f. Pānkhū								SU0		
J. Laukiiu	•	•						107.604		
								107,604		
3. Old Kuki .									•	48,814
a. Rängkhöl	•						•	7,820		
b. Bētē	•							630		
c. Hallām	•							26,848		
d. Langrong	•	·						6,266 (?)		
c. Aimol	•	•						750 (?)		
f. Anal .	•	•	•					750 (?)		
g. Chiru	•	•	•	•				750 (?)		
y. Untru h. Hiroi-Lan	•	•	•	•				750 (?)		
	igang	•	•	·				750 (?)		
i. Kolrēn	•	•	•	•				750 (?)		
j. Kōm	•	•	•	•				750.(?)		
k. Pürüm	•	•	•	•	•			2,000		
l. Mhär	•	•	•	•				?		
m. Châ	•	•	•	•	•					
								48,814		
				_						110,225
4. Southern Group	•	•	•	•				?		
Chinmē	•	•	•	·	•			?		
Welaung	•	•	•	•	•			P		
Chinbōk	•	•	•	•	•			<b>?</b>		
Yindu	•	•	•	•	•			?		
Chinbōn	or "	•	•	•	•			95,599		
Khyang o	r Sno	•	•	•	•		_	14,626		
Khami	•	•	•	•	•	•	•			
								110,225		
						Gra	nd To	otal, at least		567,625

In the preceding list I have not included southern tribes, such as Anu, Kun, Pallaing, and Sak or That, concerning which no information has been available.

The Kuki-Chin languages belong to the Burmese branch of the Tibeto-Burman Connection with Burmese family. A comparison of the Kuki-Chin numerals with those occurring in Burmese and Tibetan will show this. The five and Tibetan.
Numerals. first numerals in Burmese and Tibetan will be seen from the table below, where the written forms precede the spoken ones. The corresponding forms in Lushëi, the bestknown Kuki-Chin language, have been added in a fifth column.

	BUE	mese.	T 183	ETAN.	Lushēi.	
	Written.	Spoken.	Written.	Spoken.		
ne	Tach, ta Nhach	Nhit	Dchig Dnis	Chig	Khat. Nhih. Thum. Li., Nga.	

The numeral for 'one' has the form khat in the Kuki-Chin languages and some Nāgā languages. Compare also Lepcha  $k\bar{a}t$ . Other forms occur in Meithei and in the southern dialects.

Lushēi nhih, two, very closely corresponds to the spoken Burmese form. Ngentē, a Lushēi dialect, has preserved the form nhit, but the final consonant has been dropped in most Kuki-Chin dialects. It seems to be a rule in these languages that final consonants are often only formed in the mouth, and suppressed in the pronunciation, the result being an abrupt shortening of the sound. This abrupt tone is indicated in Lushēi by writing a silent h. The spelling nhih, which I have found in Lushēi, Mhār, and Zahao, therefore represents a pronunciation of the word nhi which exactly corresponds to that indicated by the Burmese 'ok-mrats,' the accent of abbreviated words. The forms nhit in Burmese and nhih in Lushēi are therefore identical.

The numerals three, four and five show the same correspondence between Burmese and the Kuki-Chin languages. In the formation of the higher numbers the Kuki-Chin languages have developed a principle differing from that prevailing in Burmese and Tibetan. While these latter languages express the higher tens by prefixing the multiplier to the numeral 'ten,' as in 'three tens,' 'four tens,' etc., the Kuki-Chin languages, as a rule, suffix the multiplier, and their higher numbers are formed after the pattern 'tens-three,' 'tens-four,' and so on. Meithei and Khyang, however, agree with Burmese and Tibetan.

With regard to the personal pronouns, it is worth noting that the usual pronoun of the second person in the Kuki-Chin languages, as also in Bodo, Eastern Nāgā, and Kachin is nang. This form is used in Burmese in addressing children and inferiors, but seems to be unknown in Tibetan.

The comparison of the numerals shows that the Kuki-Chin languages are closer akin to spoken than to written Burmese. This also proves to be the case in other respects. Thus we find the same law prevailing in spoken Burmese and in Meithei, according to which initial hard and soft consonants are interchanged in such a way that the soft consonants are used after prefixed words ending in vowels and nasals, and the hard ones after consonants. To take one instance from Meithei, the suffix usually added to adjectives, relative participles, etc., is  $p\bar{a}$  or  $b\bar{a}$ ; thus,  $pha-b\bar{a}$ , good;  $a-w\bar{a}ng-b\bar{a}$ , high;  $a-r\bar{a}p-p\bar{a}$ , far.

We do not find this law in force in the other languages of the group, but the difference between hard and soft consonants is apparently but little marked in any of them, and there are numerous instances of interchange. At all events, the old initials, which are still soft consonants in Tibetan, have, broadly speaking, become hardened in all Kuki-Chin languages, just as is the case in Burmese.

Some of the changes in the consonants which distinguish spoken Burmese from the written language are found to have taken place in many Kuki-Chin languages. Final m in Burmese is, in most cases, pronounced n or ng. Im, house, is, for instance, pronounced cing. The corresponding word in most Kuki-Chin dialects is in. In Khyang and Khami both im and in occur, while Meithei has in and an older form yum (compare Tibetan khyim).

Final ang in Burmese is often pronounced in; thus, nhang, pronounced nhin, with. The same change seems to be traceable in some Kuki-Chin dialects. Final ng is, in most

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Compare the so-called semi-consonants in the Munda languages.

of them, interchangeable with n, and the Burmese nhin, with, is clearly identical, with Mhār nhin, and Lushēi and Zahao  $nhen-\bar{a}$  used in the same sense. Other dialects, such as Hallām, Langrong, Kōm, etc., have forms with ng; thus, Hallām and Langrong  $neng-\bar{a}$ ; Kōm  $nheng-\bar{a}$ , to.

Burmese rh is pronounced sh. Thus, rhi, to be, pronounced shi. In several dialects, such as Lai, Zahao, Banjōgī, Shö, etc., we find a verb substantive shi, which is clearly identical.

There are also several points of analogy between Burmese and the Kuki-Chin lan-Formation and inflection of guages in the formation and inflection of words, and a few words.

Cases may be mentioned.

The prefix a, which is used in Burmese and Kachin in order to form adjectives and verbal nouns, seems to be found also in the Kuki-Chin languages. Thus, Lai  $a-k\bar{u}$ , cough; a-lang, shining; Lushëi  $\bar{a}$ -thim, darkness;  $\bar{a}$ -v $\bar{a}$ r, whiteness; Shö  $\bar{a}$ -ng $\bar{a}$ , a servant;  $\bar{a}$ -l $\bar{o}$ , the coming, etc. It is, however, in most cases impossible to distinguish between this prefix and the possessive pronoun of the third person which has the same form.

When an adjective precedes or follows a noun in Burmese, the two words form a compound to which postpositions and suffixes are added. The same is the case in the Kuki-Chin languages, and, indeed, in most Tibeto-Burman languages.

The Burmese future suffix an is the same as the ang found in Lushēi, and as similar suffixes in other connected dialects. Thus Lushēi ka-vēl-ang, I shall strike. Another future suffix in Burmese, mañ, pronounced mi, also occurs in Khami.

The Burmese future is, in common conversation, often used as an imperative; and the two tenses are constantly confounded in the Kuki-Chin dialects.

The prefixed negatives m and n in Khyang are perhaps borrowed from the Burmese. But it is more probable that they are traces of the original free order of words which once prevailed in the Tibeto-Burman languages. Compare below.

The usual tense-suffixes and assertive-suffixes in Burmese are often dispensed with in the negative form. The same is also the case in Shö.

A very common idiom in many Kuki-Chin languages is to express purpose by means of a future or an imperative, followed by a participle meaning 'saying.' Thus we find expressions such as 'house into enter saying he would not,' i.e., 'he would not enter into the house'; 'my stomach I fill will saying he wished,' i.e., 'he wished to fill his stomach'; 'pigs tend saying he sent him,' i.e., 'he sent him to tend pigs,' and many others. The same idiom is found in Burmese; thus, ta-yā tsit-mi hū-yue, 'cause decide will saying,' i.e., 'in order to have the cause decided'; pyau-mī lā-pī, speak will comes, he comes in order to speak, etc.

Such points of analogy become more important when we remember that they are met with in languages where the inflection of nouns and verbs is not fixed in the same way as in the Indo-European languages.

Our information with regard to tones in the Kuki-Chin languages is very defective.

Shö is said to possess three tones—the short acute, the heavy grave, and the rising tones; two tones, the light and heavy one, are mentioned in Khami; and the abrupt shortening of a syllable in Lushei, seems to indicate the existence of the short abrupt tone in that language. The description of the tones in Shö seems to agree with the tones of Burmese, which latter have not,

however, as yet been adequately described; but so far as our information goes, the tones seem to be the same in Burmese and in Kuki-Chin.

These facts point to the conclusion that the Kuki-Chin languages are derived from a language connected with Burmese. It will also be seen that Meithei in some respects agrees with written Burmese, as against the other languages of the group.

The Kuki-Chin languages are not, however, simply Burmese dialects. The language from which they are descended must, in many details, have had a more antique form than Burmese, and sometimes agreed with Tibetan. This latter language has a suffix pa, usually described as an article, which is employed in a very wide way in the formation of nouns and participles. This pa is identical with the suffix  $p\bar{a}$  which forms nouns of agency and relative participles in Lai, Siyin, Thādo, Kōm, Aimol, Chiru, Kolrēn, etc. It is used in a still wider way in Meithei, where it has almost all the functions of the corresponding Tibetan suffix.

The Tibetan prefix r must be compared with er and ir in Rāngkhōl er-ming, name; ir-bun, to put on, etc.

The genitive suffix ki in Meithei is the same as the Tibetan kyi. Shö kheo is perhaps also connected. It is probable that the Burmese in or i is originally the same suffix. Both seem to be derived from a demonstrative pronoun. Compare the corresponding use of the pronoun  $\bar{a}$ , that, he, as a genitive suffix in many Kuki-Chin languages.

The particle of comparison in Western Tibetan is sang, and seems to be identical with the corresponding participle  $s\bar{a}ng$  in Thado and Siyin.

A suffix la is often used in Tibetan in order to form a conjunctive participle which is substituted for the first of two connected imperatives. Thus, long-la-song, rising go, rise and go. We find the same suffix used in the same way in many Kuki-Chin dialects, such as Lushēi, Rāltē, Paitē, Mhār, Hallām, Aimol, Kōm, Kolrēn, etc. Thus, Lushēi  $dar-a \ kal-u-la(ng) \ ar \ lei-roh-u$ , bazaar-to going fowl buy, i.e., go to the bazaar and buy fowls; Hallām  $sēm-i-l\bar{a} \ n\bar{a}-p\bar{e}-r\bar{a}$ , dividing thou-give, divîde and give.

Compare also the suffixes of the past tense, Tibetan song, Lai sany.

The Kuki-Chin languages must therefore be classed as intermediate between Final result of this portion of the inquiry.

Burmese and Tibetan, though much more closely connected with the former than with the latter.

With regard to the relation of the Kuki-Chin languages, especially Meithei, to the Connection with Bodo and Nāgā groups, Mr. A. W. Davis, I.C.S., has collected much useful material which has been printed in the Assam Census Report of 1891. It appears from the comparative list of words compiled by him that all these languages, to a great extent, agree in vocabulary and structure. We shall, in this place, only draw attention to a few points.

With regard to the Bodo group it is of interest to note that the repetition of the personal pronoun before a governing noun by means of a possessive pronoun, which is so common in the Kuki-Chin languages, is fully developed in Bârâ. Thus, āng-ni ā-fā, me-of my-father; nang-ni ma-fā, thy-father; bī-ni bi-fā, his father, correspond to forms such as kei-ma ka-pa, me-of my-father in Lushēi and all other connected dialects. It is interesting that the Bârâ forms nang, thou, and na, thy, are the usual forms in the Kuki-Chin group.

The suffix u in the present tense in Bârâ is probably identical with the suffix of the present tense u or  $\ddot{u}$  in Shö. Compare also Tibetan o; Ahom and Khāmtī (Tai languages)  $\ddot{u}$ .

The future suffixes gan in Bârâ and gen in Gārō seem to be identical with gan in Meithei.

The suffix of the infinitive is  $n\bar{a}$  in Gārō, and also in Thādo, Hallām, Aimol, Langrong, Pānkhū, etc. We need not, however, go into details. The close relation existing between the Bodo and the Kuki-Chin languages has never been doubted.

The Nāgā languages are also nearly connected with the Kuki Chin group. We shall only mention a few points.

The feminine suffix  $p\bar{u}i$ , which occurs in many Kuki-Chin languages, especially in the Central Chin sub-group and in Old Kuki, is also found in Empêo, Khoirão, Maring, and others. Thus, Empêo  $em-b\bar{u}i$ , a Nāgā woman;  $en-r\bar{u}i-p\bar{u}i$ , a hen.  $\bar{A}-p\bar{u}i$  means mother' in Empêo and the connected dialects, and the use of this suffix is therefore quite parallel to the use of the word  $n\bar{u}$ , mother, as a female suffix in some Kuki-Chin forms of speech.

The word tam, many, is used as a kind of plural suffix in Thado, Lai, Banjogi, and most Old Kuki dialects. It should be compared with the plural suffixes tam in Ao, and  $\bar{a}$ -tum in Mikir. Compare also Tibetan tham-pa, complete, full; thams-chad, whole, all.

The suffix  $\tilde{e}$  which is often added to the root in the present and past times in Lushēi, Lai, Zahao, Anāl, Kōm, Thādo, Meithei, etc., is identical with the verbal suffix e in Sopvoma, Kabui, and Khoirāo, and  $w\tilde{e}$  in Angāmi and elsewhere. Thus, Angāmi  $\tilde{a}$  pu- $w\tilde{e}$ , I speak;  $\tilde{a}$   $ngu-w\tilde{e}$ , I saw, are parallel to Lushēi, ka ti-e, I say; ka-mhu-e, I saw.

The suffix of the negative imperative is shu in Lushēi and hi in Siyin and Thādo. Compare Angāmi sho and  $h\bar{e}$ , Empēo sho.

The negative particles mo and lho in Angāmi and Semā, ma in Āo,  $m\bar{a}$ , mak in Ēmpēo, Namsangiā, Kabui, Khoirāo, etc., are evidently the same, respectively, as the mak and  $m\bar{a}$  in the Old Kuki dialects and the lo in the Central Chin languages.

The interrogative particle is mo in most Kuki-Chin languages. Compare Angāmi ma, Mikir  $m\bar{a}$ . Other points of resemblance will be mentioned further on, and their number could easily be increased.

The Kuki-Chin languages are also closely related to the Kachin group. This is especially so with regard to Meithei, and the question will therefore be taken up later on, in connection with that language. We may, however, here anticipate the result, and define the position of the Kuki Chin group within the Tibeto-Burman family as fellows:—

The Kuki-Chin languages are closely connected with all the surrounding groups of the Tibeto-Burman family, the Bodo and Nāgā languages to the north, Kachin to the east, and Burmese to the east and south. More particularly, they form a link which connects

Burmese with the Bodo and Nāgā languages, having, especially in the north, many relations with the Kachin dialects, which, in their turn, form another chain between Tibetan and Burmese.

Internal grouping of the Kuki-Chin languages.

The Kuki-Chin languages must be subdivided in two branches, Meithei and the Kuki-Chin languages proper.

#### I. MEITHEI.

Meithei is the chief language of the Manipur valley, and has apparently had a long and independent development. The Manipuris are mentioned in the Shān chronicles so early as 777 A.D. Probably owing to the fact that it has developed into a literary language, their form of speech gives the impression of possessing a peculiarly archaic character. Although they have become thoroughly subjected to Hinduism, they have not adopted any Aryan tongue; Meithei is the official language of the State which all other tribes have to use in their dealings with the rulers. Our information regarding it is not very satisfactory. We do not know the dialects, and even the literary language, which is based on the dialect of Imphal, has not been fully dealt with. It is very probable that a closer examination will show that the apparent gulf between Meithei and the other Kuki-Chin languages is filled up by intermediate dialects. But this much seems certain, that Meithei has preserved some traces of a more ancient stage of phonetical development. It sometimes agrees more closely with Burmese, and even with Tibetan, than with the Kuki-Chin languages proper.

#### II. THE KUKI-CHIN LANGUAGES PROPER.

All the other dialects of the group in question are evidently derived from one form of speech, which might be styled the Old Chin language, its home being probably the Chin and Lushai Hills. The dialects derived from this original language can be divided into

the following sub-groups:-

Northern Chin, comprising Thado (with Jangshen and several sub-dialects), Sokte,
 Northern Chin.
 Siyin, Ralte, and Paite. Ralte and Paite form the link connecting the northern and the central Chin languages.

The usual plural suffixes are tē and ho, both also occurring in Lushēi.

The plural of the personal pronouns is formed by adding ho or u; thus, Thado kei-ho, Siyin  $k\bar{o}$ -mā (i.e., probably ka-u-mā), Rāltē and Paitē ka-u, we.

The interrogative pronouns seem to be koi, who? and i or bang, what? Thado has koi, who? and i, what? Siyin  $\bar{a}-k\bar{o}$ , who?  $\bar{a}-kwi$  and  $\bar{a}-bang$ , what? Ralte ku, who? and i, what? Paite kua, who? and bang, what?

The particle of comparison is sang. There are no instances in the Ralte and Paite specimens.

The suffix of the imperative is o. Another suffix seems to be in or  $t\bar{a}n$ , the latter consisting of two suffixes  $t\bar{a}$  and in. I have found this suffix in Thado, Siyin, and Paitē.

A causative is formed by suffixing  $s\bar{a}$  in Thado and shak in Paitē. Rāltē suffixes tik. Thado also forms causatives by adding  $p\bar{e}$ , to give, and a causative prefix ta occurs in Rāltē and Paitē.

There are apparently many negative particles. Thado has lo and poi; Siyin bo, bwe, ngōl, aul; Ralte o; and Paite lo and kei.

2. Central Chin, comprising Zahao (Tashōn), Lushēi (including Ngentē), Lai Central Chin. (including Tlantlang, Lakher, etc.), Banjōgī, and Pānkhū.

There is no suffix of the plural of substantives common to all these dialects, but the plural of the personal pronouns is formed by adding ni.

The interrogative pronouns have different forms. Lushëi has tu, khoi, who? eng and zeng, what? Zahao, shi, who? and ziang, what? Lai, a-ho, hoi, who? and  $z\bar{e}$ , what? Banjōgī,  $\bar{a}o-ts\bar{a}$ , who? and zei, what? Pānkhū,  $t\bar{u}$ , who? and i, what?

The particle of comparison is nhēk-in or nhēk-ā, with many orthographic varieties.

The suffix of the imperative is o in Zahao, Lai, and Banjōgī, and ro in Lushēi, Banjōgī, and Pānkhū. Several other suffixes are used in Lai.

The causative is formed by adding tir. Banjōgī, however, seems to use  $p\bar{a}i$  instead.  $P\bar{u}i$  also occurs in Pānkhū. That dialect also possesses a transitive prefix  $m\bar{a}$ ; compare Old Kuki.

The negative partiele le lo.

3. Gt. Kuki, caraprising Rangkhol, Bētē, Hallam, Langrong, Aimol, Chiru, Kolrēn, Kom, Châ, Mhār, Anāl, Hiroi-Lamgāng, and Pūrūm. All these are mere dialects of one language, which may be called by the customary name of Old Kuki. It is closely related to the Central Chin languages. Châ, in the south, is not sufficiently known, but there seems to be no doubt about its classification. Anāl and Hiroi-Lamgāng are largely influenced by Meithei. The same is the case, though not to the same extent, with Pūrūm.

Kōm, Anāl, and Hiroi-Lamgāng show a closer connection with the Nāgā languages than the other dialects of the Kuki-Chin group.

The original Old Kuki tribe seem to have lived in the Lushai Hills, from whence they were driven out by the Thādos. The Mhārs were apparently left behind, or have subsequently re-immigrated from Manipur, and this dialect has been much influenced by Lushēi. It forms a link between the central group and Old Kuki.

The usual plural suffix is ngai or hai, probably meaning 'many.' The same suffix is also used in other dialects, such as Ngentē, Banjōgī, and Pānkhū. I have not found it in the Hiroi-Lamgāng specimens.

The plural of the personal pronouns is formed by adding ni. Anal and Hiroi-Lamgang use hing and in, and no form occurs in the Mhar specimens.

The particle of comparison is  $nh\bar{e}k$ -in or  $nh\bar{e}k$ - $\bar{a}$  as in the central group. Anal, Hiroi-Lamgang, and Pūrūm differ, and there are no instances available for Mhār and Châ.

The past tense is often formed by adding the verb joi, to complete, to finish. Fūrūm, and apparently also Hiroi-Lamgāng, use  $ya\bar{u}$ , which form occurs as jou and yo in Thādo and Siyin. Compare Khāmtī (a Tai language) and Chinese yau.

The usual suffix of the imperative is ro. Anal, Hiroi-Lamgang, and Pūrūm, however, have different forms.

The causative is formed by prefixing ma, man, or min in Hallām, Aimol, Chiru, Kolrēn, and Kōm. Compare the corresponding prefix  $m\bar{o}$  in Sopvoma. Other causatives are formed by suffixing  $p\bar{e}k$ , to give (Rāngkhōl, Hallām, Pūrūm);  $p\bar{u}i$  or  $p\bar{u}$ , to assist (Hallām, Kōm); and tir, to send, to enable (Langrong and Mhār).

The most characteristic feature of Old Kuki is the negative particle  $m\bar{a}k$  or  $m\bar{a}$ , which also occurs in the forms  $m\bar{a}ing$  and  $m\bar{a}\ddot{u}ng$ . It does not occur in Mhār. Another characteristic negative is no in Rāngkhōl, Langrong, Aimol, Pūrūm, and Mhār. The negative lo occurs in Mhār; loi in Rāngkhōl; and lai in Langrong. Compare the negative particle in the central group.

4. Southern Chin, comprising Chinme, Welaung, Chinbok, Yindu, Chinbon, Khyang or Sho, Khami, and probably several tribes in Burma, such as Anu, Kun, Pallaing, and Sak or That. Some of

the tribes known as Taung-tha, that is, 'sons of the hills,' probably belong to this group.

Our information about these dialects is very limited, Khyang and Khami being the only ones which have been satisfactorily dealt with. Both comprise several dialects. Chinme is said to be a link between Chinbok and Lai, and the same must be said with regard to a Taung-tha dialect, in which a vocabulary has been published in the Upper Burma Gazetteer.

The chief peculiarity of this group is the gradual approximation to Burmese. Burmese words occur in many of the dialects. Khami has apparently given up the use of pronominal prefixes with verbs, which forms so characteristic a feature of most Kuki-Chin languages. Khyang forms the higher numbers, as in Burmese, by prefixing the multiplier thus, ngha gip, five-tens, fifty. Chinbök and some dialects of Khyang use a negative prefix, like Burmese, while the Kuki-Chin languages use a negative suffix. The whole sub-group is subdivided into numerous dialects, but our information is as yet not sufficient to make a definite sketch of the Southern Chin languages.

The close connection between all these dialects will appear from an examination of the vocabulary given below. Meithei, Thādo, Lushēi, Lai, Rāng-khōl, Khami, and Khyang have been given as representatives of the different sub-groups. The corresponding forms in Kachin have been added in an eighth column, as we shall have subsequently to consider the relation of that language to our group.

		Meithei.	Thado.	Lushēi.	Lai.	_	Rångkhöl.	Kbami.	Khyang.	Kachin.
One .		a-mā	khat	pa-khat .	pö-kat		en-kat .	hā-re , .	\bar{mat}{\hat{ha}}.\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\	ngai-mā. ai-mā.
Two .		a-ni	ni	pa-nhih	pö-nī	٠	en <b>-n</b> î	nŭ-10 .	n <b>bi</b>	ni. n'khong
Three .	٠	a-hum	thum .	pa-thum	pö-thúm	•	en-tùm .	thún	thüm thün .}	ma-sùm.
Four .	•	ma-ri	li .	pa-li .	pö-li .		mī-li .	p-lü	thi thin thin this	ma-lī.
Five .	•	ma-ngā	ngā .	pa-nga	pö-nga	•	ri-ngāh .	pā(ng) .	ngha .}	ma-ngā.
Six .	•	ta-rūk	gūp .	pa-ruk	pö-rūk	•	ga-rük .	te-rü	soke :	khrū.
Seven .		ta-rēt	ra-gi .	. ya·sa·ri	. põ•sē-ri	•	sā∙ri	sē-rū .	she shi	sinit.
Eight .	•	ni-pān	gēt .	. pa-riat	. pō-riet	•	ga-rit .	ta-yā .	shet lhse	ma-sat.
Nine .	•	mā-Jan	. kū .	. pa-kua	. pö-kua	•	guôk	ta-kâ .	ko .	cha-khù.
Ten .	,	ta-rā .	• som •	shom .	. pö-ra		shōm .	ho	ngha }	<b>s</b> ī.

#### INTRODUCTION.

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	Meithei.	Thado.	Lushei.	Lai.	Rangkhôl.	Khami.	Khyang.	Kachim
Twenty .	kul	som-ni .	shom-nhih .	pö-kül .	shōm-ni .	v-hgm •	$\left\{egin{matrix} kar{u} & \cdot \ go & \cdot \end{array} ight\}$	khūn.
Fifty	yāngkhei .	som-ngā .	shom nga .	såm-ngā .	shōm-ri-ngāh	wei-pa	{ ngha-gip } haukkyit }	ma-ngā-teī.
Hundred .	chā·mā .	jā-khat .	. <b>ZS</b>	za-kat .	ra-jā-kāt	{ta-yā chung-wai	krāt · }	la-chā.
I	ai	kei-ma .	kei-ma .	kē-(ma) .	gē-mā	kai	{kēi ·}	ngai.
₩e	ai-khoi .	Kei-ho .	kei-ma-ni .	kan-ni .	Gē-nī .	{kai-hoi .}	kyē-mē	an-thē. î.
Thou	nang	naug(-ma)	nang(-ma) .	nang(-ma) .	nang(-ma) .	nang .	nang .	nāng.
He	ınā	a-mā.	{a-ma ·}	am-ma .	ã-mã	hu-ni .	ayā	{shi. khī.
They	mā-khoi .	a-mā-ho .	an-ma-ni .	au-ni · .	{ā-mā-hai ā-mā-ni	hu-ni-chê .	{ai-kūl na-hoi .	shan-thē. khī-nī.
Who?	ka-nā .	koi	tn-10â .	a-ho-da .	tū-mōh .	a-mi-mo .	aui	damā.
What? .	ka-ri .	i-ham .	Eng•må .	zē-da .	ī-mõh	ā-ti-mo .	{baung . youm .	gara. makhai-
Back	{namgal }	tüng-tün .	nhung .	{nhū ·}	rūŏng .	ning-thün .	{lhing .}	mā. sing•māng
Belly .	puk	wai	pum	pâ	ping	tāya	{ hon }	kan.
Eac	nā	{kor . }	beng	nā	mi-gū .	kannū .	{nakku .}	nā.
Eye	mit	mit	mit	myit	mit	mi	mi(k)	mi.
Foot	khong .	kēng	{phei }	kē	kē	kho		lagong.
Hair	sam .	sham .	sam	sam	sām	shām .	{shom ·}	karā.
Hand	khut	khut	kut	kāt	kūt .	kut .	kut .	latā.
Head	kok	lā	lu .	lā	lū	lā	lū(ki)•••	bong.
Mouth .	ohil	${f kam \ mar u \ .}$	ka ·}	kā .	mār	khā	kho • •	ninggāp.
Nose	nā-tol .	{nāk ·} {nā-kui ·}	nhār	nar	n <b>šr</b>	natra	naktë •	nādī.
Tongue .	lai	lai	lei	lē	mē-lē .	pā-lāi .	lei	singlet.
Tooth	ya	hā.	{ha · ·}	ha	hā	ho	hå	w <b>š.</b>

	Meithei.	Thado.	Lushēi.	Lai.	Rāngkhöl.	Khami.	Khyang.	Kachin.
House .	yum, in	in	in	inn	īn	{im	im}	n'tā.
Mar .	{ mi		mi - mi-pā .	mī mī-pā .	mī-rīm ·}	ոնտ-շին •	khrong .	{ wa. {lāshā.
Woman .	րու-թі	nū-mai .	nu-pui (wife)	mī-nū .	ทนี-คลิกฐ .	ոնտթնն .	ma-tho ma-tho	nūmshā.
Father .	ma-pā .	pā .	pā · ·	pa .	pā	ро	po .	wā.
Mother .	ma-mā .	นที	nū . •	nā .	nū .	neh	nū	nů.
Elder Brother	yāmā .	ū	ũ	ŭ	ū-pā · .	yā .	atā	phū.
Younger Brother.	ma-não .	nāū	na0 . •	nao	shang-pā .	nā	no .	nau.
Sister	ma-chem .	นิ-หนั ทลินิ-ทน์ .	น-หนั • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	ū-nū .]	sāng•nū .	sisa . tāi-cho .	asi bē	na.
Child	ma-chā	chā	fā	fa.	nai	dungdi .	cho	sha.
Son	กละเกละเก๋-ทุล	chā-pā .	fa-pā.า.	fa-pa	nai-pā .	cho-po .	cho	lāshā- māng.
Daughter .	ma-cl-ā-nu-p	chā-nū .	fa-nū .	fa-nų	nai-nū .	nümpüi cho	mathâ cho .	nūmshā- māng.
Bird	n-chek	wa-chā .	en-va.	a-vār	. Ār	ta-wa.	{ payo }	wū.
Cat .	hau-dong	. meng-chā .	z <b>å</b> lı-tē	. sī-zā .	. mēng	min-yang	min .	miau.
Cock .	yēl lā-bā	. ā-chal .	ār-pa .	arr-lhi	. ār-kong	ā-lū .	a-lhui	u-la.
Cow .	sal . san-bi	sirhāt bong	se-bâng .	zâ-pi .	. serhāt .	shirā.	{shēil hsâ-nü	kinsū.
Dog .	. hūi .	• ūi	ui .	ūi-sō .	. ūi .	ūi .	ūi .	gui.
Goat .	. ha-meng	. kēl	kēl .	. mē-hē	. gēl .	mehe	. mi .	. bainam.
Horse .	sagol .	sakor .	sakor	. rang .	- sakor	kangā	shë .	gūmrāng.
Pig .	. ok .	wok .	vok .	. vok	. võk .	ok .	. Wok .	. wā.
Husks	. wāi .		fa-vai	. fa-vai	shā-vai.		wukö	. mām-pūng khā.
Fire .	. mai .	. mei .	. mei .	. mē .	mē .	. mai .	. mbēi .	. wan.
Gold .	sana .	. sanā .	rang-ka-	shwi.	. rang-ka-jak	mūkū	hā .	jā.
Iron .	. yot .	thi .	thir .	tirh .	. tīr .	sing .	. thi .	m'phrī.
Sun .	. nu-mit	ni .	} ni .	nī .	mī-sā .	} ka-ni	. kha-ni	jān.

#### INTRODUCTION.

	-		Meithei.	Thādo.	Lushēi.	Lai.	Rangkhöl.	Khami.	Khyang.	Kachin.
Moon .			tha	tlā ·}	thla	kla-pa .	tā	lho . · .	khlo	sītā.
Water		$\cdot$	ising	tāi	tai	ti	dāī	tāi	tāi	n'chin.
God .	•		lai	{pā-thēn ·}	pa-thian .	kō-zīn .	pātīn •	tummui .	lhī	phrā.
Name .			ming .	min	mhing .	min	er-ming .	min	ming	ming.
Village	,	•	khūl	{khūā .kho .	1 {	kwa	kū	pre	khoa	marēng.
Year .	•	•	$\left\{ egin{array}{l} \operatorname{kum} & \ (season) \ \operatorname{chahi} & \end{array}  ight.$	kūm	kum	kūm	küm	•••	kum .	ning.
Far	•	į	lāp <b>pā .</b>	gam·lā .	lha	a-lhāt .	āl-lāh	lo	lhc	sān.
Near	•	•	a-nak-pa	a-nai .	nhai	a-nai .	ā-nai	kesā	sen	nì. mason.
Good	•		pha-ba .	fa	tha	a-ta	ā-sā	hoi-nā .	phoi	gajā.
Bad	•		pha-ta-ba	a-fa-lo .	tha-lo .	a-ta-lo .	shā-māk .	hoi-ē-nā .	phoi-ā .	n'gajā.
High	•	•	wāng-ba	sāng	shāng .	a-shan .	ā-shē	āchāng .	ā-ling .	châ.
Lost	•	•	māng-ba .	mang .	mang (to become extinct).	klē	mang .	'tā-mā .	krok	ma (to be finished).
Ask	•	•	hang-ba	dong.	zât	hal .	(Hallām, ra-kēl)	ding	hi	san.
Beat	•	•	yae-ba	₹0	vēl	rēl	{iēm ·}	phākā .	mal	dūp.
Come	•		lāk-pa	hong .	hâng .	hān	hong	уа	lo	85.
Die	•	•	sī-ba .	thi	thi	thi .	tī .	dēi	du	sī.
Drink	•	•	thak-pa	don .	in	ding .		ni	ōk · ·	lā.
Eat	•	•	chā-ba	nē .	ei .	ē	fāk .	chā .	ei .	shā.
Enter	•	•	chang-ba	lhūt	lūt	lūt	lū .	•••	wang	shāng.
Give	•		pi-ba	pē .	pē(k).	pē(k)	pē(k)	pe .	pek	yā.
Go	•	•	chat-pa	che chi	kal	kal .	$\left\{egin{array}{l} (Hallar{a}m,\ {f sar{e}}) \ {f far{e}} \end{array} ight.$	. } takko	chet kāi .	85.
Kill	•		hāt-pa	that	that	that .	tāt .		tük .	sat.
Kiss	•		chup-pa	chop .	fâp	nūm .	. (Hallām, tum).	pā-nāh	. nhom	chup.
Run			chel-ba	lbai .	tlan	klīk .	(Hallām,	lai .	. chon .	. lagat.
Say			hāe-ba	ti	ti	<u>th</u> i	tān).	thue .	. hau .	. sū.

			Meithei.	Thādo.	Lushēi.	Lai.	Rāngkhōl.	Khami.	Khyang.	Kachin.
See	•	•	ũ•ba •	mū(k) .	mhu	mū	niū	nhū	mhü	nıū.
Sit	•		pham-ba	to	that	thūt }	toi	tē	kho	düng.
Stand	ı.		lep-pa .	ding	ding	dīr	(Hallām, in-ding).	angthao .	уя	chāp.
Take		•	lao-ba .	lo	lāk • .	lak	la	la	lo	lā.

The preceding list shows the close connection between all these languages, including Kachin. Thus, the numerals for two, three, four, and five are practically identical in all. It will be seen that Meithei has more points of agreement with Kachin than the other languages. Thus Meithei  $a-m\bar{a}$ , one, corresponds to Kachin  $ai-m\bar{a}$  and  $ngai-m\bar{a}$ ; Meithei ai, I, to Kachin ngai; the Meithei male suffix  $l\bar{a}-b\bar{a}$  in  $y\bar{e}l$   $l\bar{a}-b\bar{a}$ , cock, to Kachin la in u-la, cock; Meithei  $h\bar{u}i$ , dog, to

Kachin gui (compare Burmese  $khw\bar{e}$ ); Meithei  $s\bar{\imath}=$  Kachin  $s\bar{\imath}$ , to die, and so many others. The plural suffix in Meithei ai-khoi, we, corresponds to the plural suffix khai in Burmese Kachin. The suffix ni which forms the plural of personal pronouns in many Kuki-Chin languages seems to be identical with the plural suffix ni in Kachin, while the usual plural suffix te in Lushēi, Northern Chin, etc., may be compared with Kachin  $th\bar{e}$ . The personal and possessive pronouns of the second person are nang, thou, and na, thy in Kachin, as in the Kuki-Chin group. Both use generic prefixes with numerals, and no suffixes like Burmese. The usual verbal suffix ai in Kachin corresponds to  $\bar{e}$  in Kuki-Chin, and the infinitive suffix na is common to both.

The close connection between Kachin and the Kuki-Chin languages, especially Meithei, cannot be doubted, and Meithei must be considered as the link between the two groups.

The comparative vocabulary also shows that Meithei, in some instances, agrees, with Meithei and the southern the southernmost dialects, as against the rest. Compare Meithei yum, house; Khyang and Khami im: Meithei pha, good; Khyang phoi: Meithei hāe, say; Khyang hau, etc. Meithei and Khyang both form the higher numbers by prefixing the multiplier, while the other Kuki-Chin languages form numerals like the Lushēi shom-nga, tens-five, fifty. Meithei and Khyang seem to have preserved the same genitive suffix, Meithei ki, Khyang kheo, etc. It is probable that, in such cases, old forms have been preserved in these languages. The points of resemblance are not, however, so important that Meithei can be classed as belonging to the southern group; it must be considered as an independent member of the group, differing from the rest in many essential points.

These differences are found both in vocabulary and grammar. Sometimes, however, they are only apparent. Take, for instance, the personal pronoun of the third person, Meithei  $m\bar{a}$ , Thādo, Lushēi, Lai, Rāngkhōl  $\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$ , Lushēi also a-ni, Khami hu-ni, Khyang  $ay\bar{a}$ . It will be seen that many of these forms are compounds containing different pronominal stems, such as a, ms, ni, etc. All these stems are probably demonstrative pronouns. Meithei  $m\bar{a}$ , he, is the same as  $m\bar{a}$  in  $\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$ . A and ma are both used in Meithei,

apparently without any difference of meaning, in words like a-si and ma-si, this, a-du, and ma-du, that. Both stems are therefore known in Meithei, and the form ā-mā, he, is in fact identical with mā, he. Ā-mā must be compared with forms such as kei mā and kei chu, I, where mā and chu both seem to be demonstrative pronouns added to give definiteness.\* There are many more points of resemblance between Meithei and Kuki-Chin than between Meithei and any other Tibeto-Burman languages, such as Nāgā or Kachin. An important one is the Meithei negative suffix loi, which is certainly identical with Rāngkhōl loi, Lushēi, etc., lo. Considering, therefore, the question as a whole, there is no doubt that Meithei is more closely connected with the Kuki-Chin languages than with any other group.

Kuki-Chin languages proper. We now turn to the Kuki-Chin languages proper.

One of the first things which strikes us when comparing the Kuki-Chin languages with the surrounding forms of speech is the small number of otiose prefixes. Most prefixes have a distinct and easily recognisable meaning of their own. I have, however, already

mentioned that there are some traces of a prefix a used in the formation of adjectives and verbal nouns, in the same manner as the corresponding prefix in Burmese, Kachin, Lepcha, and other languages. It is difficult to say whether it is identical with the common Tibetan prefix a or is originally a pronoun.†

It seems in the Kuki-Chin group to have been confounded with the possessive pronoun of the third person which also frequently appears in all these dialects, and will be dealt with later on.

Another prefix of common occurrence in the Bodo and Nāgā languages is ga or ka.

It is generally used to form adjectives and verbal nouns. Compare Bârà  $g^a \cdot h\bar{a}m$ , good;  $g^a \cdot za\bar{u}$ , high; Angāmi  $ke \cdot zh\bar{a}$ , large;  $ka \cdot ti$ , black; Mikir  $ke \cdot en$ , acceptance;  $ke \cdot d\bar{o}$ , existence;  $ke \cdot ch\bar{o}$ , food, etc. The same suffix is also used in Kachin; thus  $ga \cdot sat$ , a fight;  $ka \cdot ba$ , big;  $ka \cdot ja$ , good, etc. Ka is the possessive pronoun of the first person in most Kuki-Chin languages. But it has sometimes a wider use. Thus, we find in Hallām  $ka \cdot s\bar{e}r$ ,  $\sin$ ;  $ka \cdot s\bar{u}ak$ , a slave. It is possible that such forms contain the prefix ka just mentioned, for there are also three Kuki-Chin dialects, Anāl, Hiroi-Lamgāng, and Kōm, which use the prefix ka in exactly the same way as in Bodo, Nāgā, and Kachin. Thus, Kōm  $a \cdot ka \cdot l\bar{u}n$ , dancing;  $ka \cdot r\bar{v}$ , companion;  $ka \cdot lh\bar{a}$ , far;  $ka \cdot th\bar{a}$ , good, etc.

The corresponding use of a prefix ka in Bodo, Nāgā, Kachin, and Kuki-Chin can only be explained by assuming its existence in the original language from which they are all derived. It must therefore have been dropped in many cases in the Kuki-Chin languages. The reason for its disappearance seems to be a double one. In the first place it was confounded with, and probably often superseded by, the possessive pronoun of the first person. The possessive pronouns are in all Kuki-Chin languages used in many cases where they seem to be altogether superfluous, a fact which will be explained later on.

<sup>\*</sup> Compare the Western Naga ma or mi, and the Kuki-Chin mi, all meaning ' mau.'

<sup>†</sup> The prefix a has been dealt with by Dr. August Conrady in his important study entitled Eine Indochinesische Causativ-Denominativ-Bildung und ihr Zusammenhang mit den Tonaccenten. Leipzig, 1896. See especially pp. 20 and ff.

On the other hand, the disappearance of prefixes such as ka is easily accounted for as follows:—

The vowels of prefixes seem in many Kuki-Chin languages to be very faintly pronounced. They are frequently changed so as to agree with the vowel of the following syllable, and are not infrequently dropped altogether. Thus, we find in Hiroi-Lamgāng ka-chēn-a, run; ki-di-yā, die; kū-dūi, rejoice; ka-lā and klā, far. The form klā represents a state of phonetic development corresponding to that prevailing in Tibetan, when that language was reduced into writing. The next step, which has been taken by modern Tibetan, is to drop the prefix altogether. In many cases the following consonant became aspirated as a compensation for the lost prefix. Compare Hiroi-Lamgāng klā; Lushēi lhā, far; Hiroi-Lamgāng sen-klo, Lushēi chhiah-lhāh, servant; Rāngkhōl ir-ming, Lushēi mhing, name, etc. In this way the dropping of prefixes in most Kuki-Chin languages can be accounted for. The whole question has been dealt with by Professor Conrady in his work Eine Indochinesische Causativ-Denominativ-Bildung, quoted above.

I now proceed to discuss some of the chief peculiarities of the Kuki-Chin group,

General character of Kuki- and more especially of the Kuki-Chin languages proper.

Chin languages proper.

The Kuki-Chin languages, and originally all Tibeto-Burman languages, evince a strong tendency to avoid abstract terms. Their words are usually the expressions of individual conceptions, and not of abstract ideas. Many dialects, for instance, seem to avoid the general word for 'man,' and generally use their own tribal name instead. Thus, we find sing-phō, man, in Sing-phō; kha-mi in Khami, and so in others.

This tendency towards individual conception of all objects makes it very difficult to compare the vocabularies of different dialects, it being, in many cases, uncertain whether the idea is exactly the same in the various forms of speech. The great number of different terms for closely-related ideas in the Kuki-Chin languages will appear from a few instances. Thus, in Lushei we find the following words for 'ant':-fang-mhīr, dārchong-tual-a, mong-er, naochâ-thing-bâm, chhim-tai-vang, thui-op, khuang-ruang, rai-sheh tai-vang and tah- $\bar{e}k$ , all probably denoting various kinds of ants. 'Basket' is translated bám, ēm, ben-von, dá-ron, ēm-pai, fong, rhai, kho, paiper, pip, thūl, reng-pui, reng-tē, tuichoi-káng, vān-lai-fong, ba-bun-kho, bám-rāng, dān-rhai, pai-káng, and tlām-ēm. There are different words for the different kinds of deer: thus, Lushēi sa-khi, a barking deer; sa-zuk, a sambhar, etc., but no general word for deer. Even words such as brother and sister are usually wanting. Thus, Lushēi u-nu, elder sister; nao-nu, younger sister; chhang-bung, the sister next to one's self in age; far-nu, a man's sister; lai-sán-nu, a woman's sister; pian-pui, own sister, etc., but no word for 'sister' generally. There are different words for the various modes of coming or going, but no proper words denoting the pure act of coming or going, and so forth.

It is a necessary consequence of this tendency towards specialisation that the Kuki-Chin languages are rich in apparent synonyms, but its effect can also be traced in many other characteristic features.

The words denoting relationship and parts of the body are the result of an abstraction. A father in the abstract, who is not the father of any individual person, is an idea which requires a certain amount

of reflection; and such words are, accordingly, never used alone in the Kuki-Chin languages, but are always preceded by a possessive pronoun. A father cannot be imagined except as somebody's father, and a hand cannot be thought of except as belonging to someone. Thus, Thādo  $k\bar{a}$   $p\bar{a}$ , my father;  $n\bar{a}$   $n\bar{u}$ , thy mother;  $\bar{a}$   $kh\bar{u}t$ , his hand.  $P\bar{a}$ .  $n\bar{u}$  and  $kh\bar{u}t$  are never used by themselves. In this way the idea is again specialised. The possessive pronoun is, of course, unnecessary when the noun is defined by means of a genitive. Thus, Lushēi  $\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$   $k\bar{e}$  (not  $\bar{a}$ - $k\bar{e}$ ), his father's foot. But even in such cases we find that the tendency towards specialisation has caused a possessive pronoun to be added to the governing noon. In this way we find combinations such as  $k\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{u}$   $\bar{a}$ -khut, my mother's her-hand, with which we may compare the German idiom dem Vater sein Haus, to the father his house, the house of the father.

The possessive pronoun of the third person occurs, of course, much more frequently Gradual loss of meaning of than those of the first and second persons; and it can easily the pronominal prefix. develop into becoming a real genitivé prefix. Norwegian word sin, his, is dialectically used as a genitive suffix, not only after words in the third person, but even after the personal pronoun of the first person. For instance we find not only far sin, the father his, the father's, but even min sin, my his, my. The same development may be ebserved in some Kuki-Chin languages. We find in Rangkhōl gē-mā ā·nāi, my his-daughter, instead of gē-mā gē-nāi, my my-daughter, my daughter. The prefix ā may, next, be easily considered as an integral portion of the word, and in this way we must certainly account for many of the cases where words in the Kuki-Chin languages begin with  $\bar{a}$ . This prefix  $\bar{a}$  is often found in words where also Burmese would use a prefix a, and it is probable that the prefixes have been confounded in the Kuki-Chin languages. The question of the origin of the Burmese a is, however, still an open one, but the origin of the Kuki-Chin prefix  $\bar{a}$  from the possessive pronoun seems to be proved by the corresponding use of the possessive pronoun ma in Meithei; thus, ma-khong, his-foot; ma-pham, place; ma-ning, back; ma-tum, time; ma-tik, worthy, etc. Anal, an Old Kuki dialect which has been largely influenced by Meithei. seems to use both prefixes in exactly the same way; thus, ma-rūp ma-pāng, (my) friends (and) companions; a-mī-nai, a slave, etc. The prefix ma in Meithei seems to be identical with mi, which is often prefixed to nouns relating to parts of the human body in Empēo; thus, mi-pā, hand.1

It is a well-known fact that the Tibeto-Burman languages have not developed a The nature of the Kuki-Chin proper verb. The words which perform the functions of verbs are, in other cases, used as nouns, and may, for all practical purposes, be considered as verbal nouns denoting an action. The so-called verbs are therefore also inflected like nouns. The various tenses are formed by adding postpositions, or are compounds, the last part of which has the meaning of finishing, beginning, etc. This substantival character of the verbs is very apparent in the Kuki-Chin languages.

The more root, that is the theme of the verbal noun, is commonly used to denote present and past times; the future is usually formed by adding a postposition, which often also occurs after ordinary nouns with the meaning 'for,' 'in order to.' The verbal noun is combined with the ordinary case suffixes in order to form adverbial clauses. A postposition a, which is usually added to nouns in the locative case, forms different kinds of

¹ It must be borne in mind that the possessive pronoun of the third person is originally a demonstrative pronoun, and that the demonstrative pronouns in Tibeto-Burman languages to a great extent also occur as verbs substantive. The prefix a can therefore also be considered as a relative participle of the verb substantive.

participles, e.g., Lushēi shoi-ā, saying, lit. in the act of saying. The verbal noun is often used as a genitive, governed by another noun. Thus, Aimol a-thi-nū, his dying (-of) back, i.e., after he had died, compare the suffix nui which forms conjunctive participles in Bârâ. The root alone is used as a relative participle; thus, Thado yām-ching-mi, sheep-tending-man, i.e., a shepherd; Zahao a-um-lai-a, his-being-time-at, i.e., when This relative participle is, practically, a verbal noun in the genitive governed by the qualified noun. Sometimes even the plural suffixes are added to the verbs; thus, Lushēi puan ka-mhu-te, cloth I-saw-plural-suffix, the clothes I saw; Rāngkhōl  $t\bar{u}$ - $t\bar{e}$ ā-ōm-mā-hai, any-one is-not-plural-suffix, no people are there, etc.

Verbs are treated like nouns.

The verbs in the Kuki-Chin languages are, also in other respects, subject to the same general rules as ordinary nouns. The verbs are, as a rule, never conceived in the abstract, but are always put in relation to some noun as their subject. This is effected in the same The subject a possessive proway as with ordinary nouns, by prefixing the possessive pronoun. nouns, so that the expression 'my going' is used instead of '1 go.' Thus Lushëi kei-mā ka-nī, my my-being, I am; nang-mā i-nī, thy thy-being, thou art; a-mā a-nī, his his-being, he is. This peculiarity is very characteristic of the true Kuki-Chin languages. unknown in Meithei and a few dialects which have been much influenced by that language, such as Anāl, Hiroi-Lamgang, and Pūrūm, and it seems also not to be used in Khami. There are, however, in these dialects also some traces of the same peculiarity, and it seems probable that it has once prevailed over a wider area than it does at the present time.

Mr. Houghton states that the possessive pronouns are used in the same way in Gyārang and some of the Circassian languages, and we also find Analogies in other languages. analogous facts in some Nāgā dialects. Thus, the possessive pronouns are used to denote the subject in Namsangia Naga before the potential form of the verb; for instance, ī-tā-thienang, my-able-being-putting, I can put.

We have seen that the possessive pronoun may be omitted before ordinary nouns when qualified by means of a prefixed genitive. The same is Loose use of the possessive pronoun when used as a subject. the case with regard to verbs, when the subject is otherwise indicated.

We also find that the possessive pronoun of the third person is occasionally substi-The pronominal prefix a with tuted for those of the first and second persons, experting as in the case of nouns. Thus, Rangkhol nang a-om-ta, thou wast, lit. thy his-being-finishing; gē tinā ā-fē-tā, I have gone, lit. my formerly his-goingfinishing. This use of the possessive pronoun  $\tilde{a}$  in all persons is especially frequent in Anal, and this dialect has, consequently, given up the regular use of the possessive pronouns before verbs.

A prefix  $\bar{a}$  is generally used before adjectives in the Kuki-Chin languages, and there can be no doubt that it is originally, in most cases, the Adjectives are formally verbs. possessive pronoun of the third person. The adjectives are formally verbs, and may, like other verbs, be used to indicate the predicate, or like relative participles, to qualify a noun. There is, for instance, no formal difference between Kolrēn a-lāk, far, and a-om, being, in a-mā ram-ā a-om mi khat, that country-in being man one. The prefix a is exactly the same in both cases. A noun qualified by an adjective can only be in the third person, and the adjective is, accordingly, in such cases always preceded by the possessive pronoun of the third person.

On the other hand, when adjectives perform the functions of real verbs they are usually preceded by the possessive pronouns indicating the person of the subject. Thus, Lushēi kei-mā ka-shāng-loh, my my-tall-being-not, I am not tail; Siyin nang sāng kē-mā ka-tha-tak-zau-hi, thee than I I strong-more-am, I am stronger than thou.

We have thus seen how the tendency to specialise and individualise has caused the Generic prefixes with numer. Use of pronominal prefixes before nouns, verbs, and adjectives. The same tendency may also be adduced to explain the use of generic prefixes with numerals. The numerals are, in this way, restricted in their sphere so as to apply to some special kind of objects. The generic prefixes are, however, not peculiar to the Kuki-Chin languages, and we need not here enter into the question about their use. Suffice it to note that these generic particles are prefixes as in Bodo, Mikir, Empēo, etc., and not suffixes as in Burmese. In Lai the noun itself, or some part of it, is sometimes used as a generic prefix; thus rang rang-kat, horse horse-one, one horse; sī-zá zá-kat, one cat. But in most cases these prefixes have apparently now lost their proper meaning. The materials collected for the Linguistic Survey are not, however, sufficient for deciding whether generic prefixes are used in all Kuki-Chin dialects.

The negative verb is, with very few exceptions, formed by suffixing a negative particle. In Chinbok and some dialects of Khyang we find a negative prefix as in Burmese.

The most usual negative particles have already been mentioned, and need not be repeated here. The negative lo, which is used in Thado, Paite, Lushei, Zahao, Lai, Banjogi, Pānkhū, and Mhār, is identical with the loi of Meithei and Rāngkhōi, and the lai of Langrong. It seems to correspond to the Burmese verb lo, to need, to want, to be destitute of. The initial l is perhaps derived from the negative prefix n, and the final o or ai a verb substantive. The negative māk in the Old Kuki dialects may, in the same way, correspond to Lushei māk, to give up. It is, however, more probable that māk is a compound, consisting of the negative prefix ma and a verb substantive. Compare Balti uk in zir-uk, I say; argos-uk, it is necessary, etc. On the whole it may safely be assumed that the negative suffixes in the Kuki-Chin languages contain a negative prefix which is not, however, prefixed to the principal verb but to the old copula which is added as an assertive suffix. The negative verb would, accordingly, be a compound. The negative particle is usually inserted between the root and the tense suffixes, a fact which well agrees with the supposition of its being a verb forming a compound.

The negative particle ni in Pūrūm is sometimes used as a verb, meaning 'is wanting,' is not'; thus,  $lai \cdot m\bar{a}$   $ni \cdot yau \cdot v\bar{c}$ , a-little is uot-there, it is not enough.  $Ka \cdot th\bar{a} \cdot ka \cdot m\bar{a}$ , good-not, bad, in Hiroi-Lamgāng, where the prefix ka is added to the negative  $m\bar{a}$ , seems also to point to the conclusion that the negative verb is a compound.

We may, finally, note that there is sometimes a reduplication of the principal verb before the negative; thus Kolren na-pē-pēk-mao-yai, did not give. Similarly, in Mikir, where the negative particle is ē, the first consonant of the principal verb is invariably repeated before it. In Khyang, as in Burmese, the ordinary tense suffixes are often dispensed with in the negative form. There does not seem to be anything corresponding in other Kuki-Chin languages.

#### MANIPURI OR MEITHEI.

Meithei, the chief language of Manipur, differs from the other Kuki-Chin languages in so many points that it must be classed as a separate sub-group. It has been returned as the language of 240,637 individuals. It has largely influenced the dialects of other tribes spoken in the Manipur State. The short vocabularies in Andro, Sengmai, and Chairel which have been subjoined, will illustrate this fact.

The valley of Manipur is inhabited by a people who call themselves Meithei. The Bengalis call them Moglai, the Thādos Mei-lei, and the Assamese Mēklē, or Mēkhalī. The name Meithei is generally written Maiḥṭai in Assam. The people are known to the Burmese as Pōṇṇās, that is Brahmins, and Kathēs, the latter name comprising the low caste Manipuris.

According to their own traditions, the Mayarang tribe has come from the South, the Khūmals from the East, and the Meitheis proper and the Luyangs from the North-West. The surrounding hill tribes assert that they are the progenitors of the Manipuri race. McCulloch mentions the curious facts, that one of their ceremonics, denominated Phumban-ka-bā, or 'ascending of the throne,' is performed in Naga dress, and that the original residence of the Meithei chiefs is made in the Naga fashion. It is, he says, still kept up though the chief does not reside in it any more. The following account of the Manipuris is reprinted from Mr. Gait's Assamese Census Report:—

'The true Manipuris, who now claim to be Kshattriyas, are divided into four tribes,—Khūmal, Luyāng, Ningthaujā (Meithei), and Mayarāng.¹ Each tribe contains numerous exogamous phoids or family groups, the names of which are generally indicative of the occupation of the founder, or some nickname which was applied to him. The earliest mention of the Manipuris is contained in the chronicles of the Pong Shāns, in which it is said that Samlong, a brother of the Pong king, descended into the valley about 777 A.D. on his return from Tipperah, but found the Manipuris so poor that he exacted little or no tribute from them. Their history for the next 1,000 years appears to have been sufficiently uneventful. Their power and prosperity steadily increased up to the middle of the eighteenth century, when we find the Raja invading Burmese territory. He was, however, eventually defeated, and shortly afterwards the Burmese turned the tables on him and invaded Manipur. The history of the subsequent years is one of constant internal feuds, due to disputes about the succession, which usually ended in Burmese intervention. On the conclusion of the Burmese war, the independence of the State was declared, and since that time Manipur has been under the protection of the British Government.

'There are some Sūdra Manipuris, who, it is supposed, are the descendants of immigrants who married Manipuri wives. There is also a degraded class called Kālācheiya or Bishnupuri, which consists of the descendants of Doms and other Bengalis of low caste. Their occupation was originally that of supplying grass for the royal stables. They speak a language, which is different from that of the true Manipuris, and is in fact closely allied to vulgar Bengali.

I am indulted to Mr. T. C. Hodson for several valuable notes about the various tribes in Mauipur. He writes, 'Meithei seems to me to be the name of the confederacy of the Angams, Kumals, Luangs, Ningthajas, Foirangs, Chengleis, and Khabanambas. There are even now seven saleis or clans, of which the chief is the Ningthaja or Royal clan. My investigations lead me to believe that there were originally at least ten, perhaps more. These saleis are theoretically exogamous, and of course their minor divisions are exogamous also.'

'Although the Manipuris now call themselves Hindus, they still retain much of their old animistic worship, and McCulloch says that they have "above three hundred deities who are still propitiated by sacrifices of things abhorrent to real Hindus." The Manipuris are addicted to snake worship, and every man has hanging in his house a small basket, which is supposed to contain his house-hold deity. The priests and priestesses, who perform these ceremonies, are called *Maibas* and *Maibis*. They practise exorcism in a way similar to that which has already been described in connection with other tribes. Any one who claims to have had a call may become a Maiba.

'The Manipuri Musalmans are said to be the descendants of persons who took Musalman wives before Hinduism became the State religion. They are supposed to have been more numerous before the Burmese invasions. [According to Mr. Hodson, they claim to be descended from Muhammadan prisoners taken by the Manipuris in their raids on Cachar, and they are, from time to time, reinforced by immigrants from Cachar.]

'Wives are purchased; they are really the slaves of their husbands, and are occasionally sold by them when in debt. Chastity before marriage is not insisted on. Widow re-marriage is permitted, and so also divorce; but if a man puts away his wife without a fault, she has theoretically a right to take all his property, except his drinking pot and the cloth round his loins.'

During the Burmese invasions and the internal troubles which preceded the advent of the British, many Manipuris settled in Cachar and Sylhet. They are found in the south of the Cachar Plains, and many of them are also settled in Hill Tipperah where the language is also called Mēkhalī. In Dacca they call themselves Mai-tai or Mi-tāi, and there are also a few immigrants from Manipur in Mymensingh and in Sibsagar. The numbers of speakers are returned as follows:—

Manipur State											150,000
Cachar Plains											42,077
Sylhet .	•				•						30,000
Hill Tipperah		•		•			•	. •			18,000
Dacca .				•		,	•			•	250
Mymensingh											200
Sibsagar .	•		•	•			•			•	110
-											
								To	TAL	•	240,637

Manipuri is, to some extent, a literary language. Mr. Damant gives the following account of the literature:—

'The most important MS. is called the "Tākhelgnamba," and contains an account of the wars between Pamhaiba, alias Garib-Namaz, [Gharib-nawāz] king of Manipur and the Rājā of Tiparah. The copy in my possession contains 45 leaves written on both sides. The next in importance is the "Samsokgnamba," which is a history of the war between Charairongbā and his son Pamhaiba of Manipur and the kings of Burma and Sumjok. It contains 36 leaves. The "Lānglol," a short MS. of ten leaves only, is a treatise on morals, interpixed with proverbs and maxims, and would probably be interesting as throwing light on the customs of the Manipuris before their conversion to Hinduism. The only other MSS, of which I have been able to obtain information, are the "Meiyāng-gnamba," an account of the wars between Manipur and Kachār, and the "Salkau," a treatise on cattle and the respect to be shown them. The above seem to comprise the whole literature of Manipur; but it is just possible that further search may reveal one or two other works. The MSS. are all written on a coarse, but very durable, kind of paper, with pens made of bamboo; paper blackened with charcoal on which they write with a soapstone pencil is also used. The character has now been almost entirely superseded by Bengali, and indeed but few of the Manipuris can read it. A national chronicle is, however, still kept in the old character by the guild of priests, "maibees" as they are called, in which every event of importance occurring in the country is regularly recorded."

Mr. Damant is of opinion that the old Manipuri alphabet was introduced from Bengal in the reign of Charairongba, who flourished about 1700 A.D. There are no traces of the existence of writing in Manipur before that time. According to Mr. Hodson, local tradition declares that the art of writing was acquired from the Chinese, who came to Manipur about 1540 A.D. I reproduce, after Mr. Damant, a table showing the signs occurring in the old alphabet.

Mr. T. C. Hodson mentions the Ning-thau-vol, or history of the kings of Manipur, in which the first touch of history is dated 1432; the epic of Khamba; Numit-kāppa, the tale of the man who shot the Sun, and several other ballads.

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wōi-pa		yae-pā	•	<b>เ</b> อลั

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I am indebted to the Rev. William Pettigrew for a translation of the parable of the Prodigal Son m Manipuri. This translation has been transliterated into the ancient character by Pandit Sārang Ōjhā, and both texts are printed below. It will be seen that there is a slight difference between the two, Sārang Ojhā often marking a vowel as long where Mr. Pettigrew gives the short sound. I have in the transliterated test of our followed Mr. Pettigrew. Additions made by Sarang Ojha are given within bracket far as I have been able to do so I have corrected the an instancial of the veign in the

third specimen comes from Hill Tipperah, and is of comparatively small value. The second one, which has been prepared by Babu Bisharup Singh, has been taken down in Manipur, and is an excellent specimen. The list of standard words and phrases is also due to Babu Bisharup Singh, but I have added a few forms from two other lists, one from Dacca, and one from Hill Tipperah. All these texts, as also two other translations of the parable, exhibit essentially the same language. The remarks on Manipuri grammar which follow are almost entirely based on the specimens. Mr. Primrose's Manual is too short for getting a clear idea of this form of speech, and it is desirable that some one should undertake to give a fuller description of the language. Mr. Damant states that the old manuscripts are unintelligible to most Manipuris. They are apparently written in verses, but the short specimen printed by Mr. Damant is not sufficient for a comparison. It contains the forms of the future and the imperative usual in modern Manipuri, and the relative participle is formed in the same way. Many of the words are the same as in the modern language. But I have not been able to analyse the text properly, and an annotated edition of a greater part of some old manuscript, if possible with an interlinear translation, would certainly be a most useful undertaking.

**Pronunciation.**—K, t, p, and ch are, in the old manuscripts, generally written instead of g, d, b, and j, respectively, and the same is also often the case in modern writing. There are also in other respects several inconsistencies, and it is often very difficult to see which pronunciation is meant. Thus we very often find long and short vowels used promiscuously. Final vowels of monosyllabic words are probably long; thus, mī, man;  $m\bar{a}$ , he;  $p\bar{a}$ , father. But a long vowel is apparently shortened in most cases where a new syllable is added. Thus, mā, he, but ma-khoi, they; yāmā, elder brother, but ma-yāma-dā, his-elder-brother-to; a-mā, one, but a-ma-nā, one by. There are, however, many exceptions to this rule, especially in the two first specimens. And in the short text from an old manuscript printed by Mr. Damant there is no trace of such a change. A short a is apparently often written to denote the indistinct vowel sound between concurring consonants. Thus we find  $pi-da-r\bar{e}$ , gave not;  $woi-d-r\bar{e}$ , am not, etc., where da or d is the negative particle. U is apparently also used in the same way, for we find the same suffix written dunā, danā, and tnā, d and t being interchangeable. Thus, hāi-du-nā and hāi-da-nā, saying; khai-t-nā, dividing. The last form, khai-t-nā, has been taken from a translation of the parable of the Prodigal Son which has not been printed. This vowel sound seems to be dropped before another vowel. Thus we find saora-duna, getting angry; but tau-rē, did, where rē apparently is  $ra + the suffix \bar{e}$ . The vowel uis perhaps, in some words at least, pronounced as ü. We may infer this from the form yim occurring as a doublet of yum, a house.

The writing of the diphthongs is more consistent, but there is also here some uncertainty. Thus, we find the word for 'tongue' written lai and lei. The first component, a or e, is stated to be short. Where the a is long, we find this diphthong written āi; thus, hāi, say. The last component of ai is often written as e in the old manuscripts, and the sound is probably more open than i, like the last portion of the sound of the i in-English 'high.' The same remark holds good with regard to oi, which often occurs as oe. Initial oi is interchangeable with woi; thus, oi and woi, to be. The latter form is probably the correct one, there being no proper sign for w, that for u being used to supply its place.

The consonants b and p; d and t; g and k; r, and l seem to be interchangeable in such a way that the soft consonants are used after a vowel, the hard ones after a consonar' r being considered as the soft doublet of l. After m, n, and ng, we usually find b, a, and g, but l and not r. Thus, pha-ba, good; a-wang-ba, high; but a-rap-pa, far: ma- $p\bar{a}$ - $d\bar{a}$ , his-father-to; yum- $d\bar{a}$ , the-house-in; ngon- $d\bar{a}$ , to;  $m\bar{a}ng$ - $d\bar{a}$ , before; but lau $buk-t\bar{a}$ , fields-to: ai-gi, my;  $phang-ga-da-b\bar{a}$ , which shall be received;  $k\bar{e}n-g\bar{e}$ , with a view to fall; but ok-ki, the swine's (food); na-hāk-ki, thy: tau-rē, did; ma-ran, his property; but lan, property;  $m\bar{a}ng-l\bar{e}$ , was lost; them-jil-l $\bar{e}$ , entreated. Ch and j are probably interchanged in the same way, but there are no certain instances in the specimens. In the old manuscripts the hard consonants are generally written instead of the soft ones, and this practice accounts for most of the exceptions to the rule which occur in the specimens. B, d, g, and r never occur as finals. The rule regarding the use of these consonants is, therefore, the same as in Burmese, where, however, the sound r does not exist, there being accordingly nothing corresponding to the interchange between r and l. The other groups, b and p; g and k; d and t, seem to represent the sounds which are phonetically called hard lenes.

L is also often interchangeable with n; thus,  $s\bar{a}$ -gol and  $s\bar{a}$ -gon, horse; khol and khong, sound; hal and han, to cause, etc.

Consonants are often doubled; thus,  $y\bar{a}mma$  and  $y\bar{a}ma$ , elder brother; phammo, sit;  $w\bar{a}ngngi$ , is tall;  $n\bar{i}ngng\bar{e}$ , wished, etc. Ngng is perhaps an assimilation of ng-l. Compare  $t\bar{a}ng$ -ngam- $b\bar{a}$  and  $t\bar{a}ng$ -lam- $b\bar{a}$ , dearth; chang-ngoi, probably for chang-loi, will not enter, etc. In phatta- $b\bar{a}$ , bad, from a-pha- $b\bar{a}$ , good, the two ts are perhaps derived from contraction. Compare phat-loi, bad.

The word  $l\bar{a}k$ , to come, also occurs as la, with the final consonant dropped.

The consonants gh, chh, jh,  $\hat{n}$ ; all the cerebrals; dh, bh, v,  $\hat{s}$ , sh, and khya, are apparently foreign to the language.  $\hat{S}$  is written in  $\bar{\imath} \hat{s} a i$ , song, but seems only to denote s. In  $san\bar{a}$ , gold, the s is, in the list of words received from Dacca, said to be pronounced like a double s.

There are said to be at least two different tones in Manipuri, but I have not seen any description of them.

Articles.—There are no articles. The numeral  $\alpha$ - $m\bar{\alpha}$ , one, supplies the place of an indefinite article, while definiteness is denoted by means of demonstrative pronouns and relative participles.

**Nouns.**—Nouns denoting relationship and parts of the body are usually preceded by a possessive pronoun. Thus,  $i ext{-}p\bar{a}$ , my father;  $ma ext{-}ttu$ , his wife;  $ma ext{-}khut$ , his hand, etc. The reduplicated noun  $p\bar{a} ext{-}b\bar{a}$ , father, is, however, used alone in the first specimen. Thus,  $p\bar{a} ext{-}b\bar{a}$ , O father. In the same way we also find  $ang\bar{a}ng$ , O child.

Gender.—There is apparently only the natural gender, inanimate nouns being neuter. Different words are generally used in order to distinguish the gender of human beings. Thus,  $ma \cdot p\bar{a}$ , his father;  $ma \cdot m\bar{a}$ , his mother:  $ma \cdot w\bar{a}$ , her husband;  $ma \cdot tu$ , his wife:  $ni \cdot p\bar{a}$ , a man;  $nu \cdot pi$ , a woman. The words  $ni \cdot p\bar{a}$  and  $nu \cdot pi$  are also added to other words in order to distinguish their gender; thus,  $ma \cdot ch\bar{a}$   $ni \cdot p\bar{a}$  and  $ni \cdot p\bar{a}$   $ma \cdot ch\bar{a}$ , his son;  $ma \cdot ch\bar{a}$   $nu \cdot pi$  and  $nu \cdot pi$   $ma \cdot ch\bar{a}$ , his daughter. In the case of animals we find the suffixes  $l\bar{a} \cdot b\bar{a}$ , male, and  $a \cdot mom$ , female; thus,  $sa \cdot gol$   $l\bar{a} \cdot b\bar{a}$ , a horse;  $sa \cdot gol$   $a \cdot mom$ , a mare. In words such as  $san \cdot bi$ , cow, a feminine suffix bi or pi is used.

Number.—The suffix of the plural, in the case of human beings, is sing or sing; thus, ma-nāi-sīng, his servants; ma-chā nu-pi sing, daughters. Sing is said to be used to denote the definite plural. Other words added in order to convey the idea of plurality are pum-na-mak, all; ma-yām, a multitude; khi-pik, every, etc. Thus, sa-gol pum-na-mak, horses; ōk ma-yām, pigs, etc.

Case.—No suffix is necessary for the Nominative. Thus,  $mi\ a$ -ma- $gi\ ma$ - $ch\bar{a}\ ni$ - $p\bar{a}$  a- $ni\ lai$ -ram-mi, man one-of his-sons two were. Sometimes di is added, apparently in order to denote definiteness. Thus, sa- $gol\ a$ -ngau-ba- $gi\ s\bar{a}$ -ban- $di\ yumung$ - $d\bar{a}\ lai$ , horse white of the-saddle house-in is. The suffix of the agent, which is generally added to the subject of a transitive verb, is  $n\bar{a}$ ; thus, ma- $p\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}\ ma$ - $khoi\ a$ -ni- $gi\ damak\ lan$ -thum  $y\bar{e}l$ - $l\bar{e}$ , his father them two-of sake-for property divided. In the first specimen we also find  $n\bar{a}$  added to the subject of an intransitive verb; thus, ma- $ch\bar{a}\ a$ - $hal\ a$ -du- $n\bar{a}\ lai$ -buk- $t\bar{a}\ lai$ -ram-mi, his son old that fields-in was. The suffix  $n\bar{a}$  is here out of place.

The Accusative is often formed without any suffix; thus,  $k\bar{a}ng$ -khol a-du-su a-hing  $m\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}$  lau-ra- $g\bar{a}$  nung-thin ma- $y\bar{a}ma$ - $d\bar{a}$  pi, curtain that-also at-night he taking, at-day his-elder-brother-to gave. The suffix bu, concerning, is sometimes added in order to denote the object; thus na- $h\bar{a}k$ -ki  $y\bar{a}thang$ -bu  $h\bar{i}k$ -thok- $t\bar{e}$ , thy command (I) disobeyed-not. The form ai-bu in na- $h\bar{a}k$ -ki na- $ch\bar{a}$ -ni  $h\bar{a}i$ - $b\bar{a}$  ai-bu ma-tik woi-d- $r\bar{e}$ , thy thy-son-am to-say me-to fitness is-not, means 'to me,' 'concerning me.' Compare swarga-bu  $m\bar{a}i$  on-thok-tu- $n\bar{a}$ , heaven-from face turning-away.

The suffix of the Genitive is gi, and the governed word precedes the governing one. A possessive pronoun is often prefixed to the governing noun. Thus, na- $p\bar{a}$ -gi yum, thy father's house; ma-du-gi ma-man, that-of its-price, the price of that. The suffix gi is sometimes dropped; thus, ma- $y\bar{a}ma$ -gi san ma-chin- $n\bar{a}$  tau-ba-ni  $h\bar{a}i$ -da- $n\bar{a}$ , his-elder-brother's cattle its-mouth-by done-is saying, saying that it had been done by the mouth of the cattle of his elder brother; ma- $s\bar{a}$   $kh\bar{a}i$ -bok a- $m\bar{a}$ , body-of half one.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Dā means 'in,' 'at,' 'to'; thus, lau-buk-tā, in the fields, to the fields; ma-du-dā, that-in, then. Ngon is usually prefixed to  $d\bar{a}$  in the sense of 'to' when added to personal pronouns and the word mi, man; thus,  $m\bar{a}$ -ngon- $d\bar{a}$ , him to. The postposition gi, which we have found to be the suffix of the genitive, is often added to  $d\bar{a}$ , and da-gi means 'from.' Thus,  $kuh\bar{a}$ -dagi, from the well; a-ni-da-gi hēnnā pha-bā, two-among-from more good, better. Budi seems to be used in the same sense in ma-gi ma-chan-bu-di ma-não-nã hēnnā wāng-i, him-of his-sister-concerning-from his-brother exceeding high-is, his brother is taller than his sister. Note the suffix of the agent in ma-não-nã, his brother. Damak, for the sake of, is a substantive, and the genitive suffix gi is added to the preceding noun; thus, mā-gi damak, his sake-for. Gā means 'with'; thus, i-pāng-gā, my-companions with. . Loi-na-nā, together, is often added to  $g\bar{a}$ . Māng-dā, in the front of, before, is originally a substantive. The same is the case with  $tung-d\bar{a}$ , back at, behind;  $nung-d\bar{a}$ , interior-in interior-to, in, into; and numerous other postpositions. The governed noun is put in the genitive; thus, ma-bungāni-gi ma-rak-tā, both among, in the middle of those two. Nā is the usual postposition denoting the agent. It also means 'with,' 'by means of'; thus lām-bā-nā, hunger-with; thauri-nā, ropes-with.

Adjectives.—Almost all adjectives are in form relative participles ending in  $b\bar{a}$  or  $n\bar{a}$ . The suffix  $b\bar{a}$  is occasionally changed to bi in the feminine An a is often prefixed

apparently without altering the meaning; thus, a-pha-bā and pha-bā, good. A few adjectives seem to be formed without the suffix bā; thus, higōk, blue; nāpū, yellow; apisak, small; ahal, old; na-hā, young, etc. When an adjective is used as a verb it takes the common verbal suffixes; thus, wāng-i, he is tall. The position of the adjective is apparently free. They sometimes precede and sometimes follow the noun they qualify. The suffix of comparison is da-gi, from, and hēn-nā, excelling, is prefixed to the adjective. Thus a-ni-da-gi hēn-nā pha-bā, two-among-from more good, better; a-khwāi-da-gi hēn-nā wāng-bā, all-among-from more high, highest. Instead of hēn-nā we also find yām-nā, much; thus, ma-hāk-ki ma-chan-da-gi ma-hāk-ki ma-yām-ba-nā yām-nā wāng-i, him-of his-sister-than him-of his brother more tall, his brother is taller than his sister. The nā in hēn-nā and yām-nā is probably identical with the postposition nā, with. It seems to denote time, place, and manner; thus, thāp-nā, at a distance; na-nāi a-ma-gum-nā tham-bī-yu, thy-servant one-as make(-me); thu-nā, quickly; nung-ngāi-nā, in happiness.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. The initial a in the three first numerals is a prefix the meaning of which is uncertain. It is dropped in ni- $p\bar{a}n$ , two-from-ten, eight:  $n\bar{a}$ -pan, one-from-ten, nine, etc. Compare Tableng pan, ten. The higher numbers are reckoned by scores. Thus, kul, twenty; kun- $thr\bar{a}$ , that is kul- $tar\bar{a}$ , twenty-ten, thirty. The word phu seems to mean 'score'; thus, ni-phu, two scores, forty. It will be seen that the lower numeral follows the higher one when it is added to it, but precedes kul, phu, twenty, when there is a multiplication; thus,  $h\bar{u}m$ -phu-ta- $r\bar{a}$ , three times twenty and ten, seventy. The same principle prevails in Singphō. The forms for 'one,' 'four,' 'five,' and 'hundred,' are also practically identical with those occurring in that language; thus Manipurī a- $m\bar{a}$ , Singphō ai- $m\bar{a}$ , one; Manipurī ma-ri, Singphō ma-li, four; Manipurī and Singphō ma- $ng\bar{a}$ , five; Manipurī  $ch\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$ , Singphō la- $ch\bar{a}$ , hundred. Chā- $m\bar{a}$ , hundred-one, shows that the multiplier is suffixed to the numeral  $ch\bar{a}$ , hundred. The same is the case with lising, thousand; thus, lising a-ni  $ch\bar{a}$  ma-ri, two thousand four hundred. The numeral  $y\bar{a}ng$ -khei, fifty, is formed in a different way from the other higher numerals, and I am unable to analyse it.

There are apparently no generic prefixes. The word dang is sometimes added to the numeral, but I cannot ascertain the meaning of it. Thus, ha-mēng ma-chā a-ma-dang, goat young one, a kid; rūpā ma-ri-dang, four rupees. It is perhaps an indefinite particle; compare khara and khara-dang, some, a few, and Kachin (Bhamo district) mam dang ma-sum dang rai-nga-ai, rice baskets three about may-be, there may be about three baskets of rice.

The numerals follow the noun they qualify, and suffixes and postpositions are added to them, and not to the qualified noun.

Pronouns.—The following are the Personal pronouns:—

Singular,—  $ai, i-h\bar{a}k, I. \qquad nang, na-h\bar{a}k, \text{ thou.} \qquad m\bar{a}, ma-h\bar{a}k, \text{ he, she, it.}$   $ai-gi, i, \text{ my.} \qquad nang-gi, na, \text{ thy.} \qquad m\bar{a}-gi, ma, \text{ his, her, its.}$   $ai-khoi, \text{ we.} \qquad na-khoi, \text{ you.} \qquad ma-khoi, \text{ they.}$   $ai-khoi-gi, \text{ our.} \qquad na-khoi-gi, \text{ your.} \qquad ma-khoi-gi, \text{ their.}$ 

The forms  $i-h\bar{a}k$ ,  $na-h\bar{a}k$ , and  $ma-h\bar{a}k$  are used in a honorific sense. Special terms may be used in addressing the Rājā, etc. The ordinary case suffixes are added to the

personal pronouns.  $Ngon-d\bar{a}$  is used instead of  $d\bar{a}$ , to. Thus,  $na-h\bar{a}k-ki$ , thy;  $ai-ngon-d\bar{a}$ , me-to, etc. The short forms i, na, and ma are the possessive pronouns; thus,  $i-p\bar{a}$ , my father;  $na-p\bar{a}-gi$  yum- $d\bar{a}$ , thy-father's house-in. They are often preceded by the genitive of the personal pronoun; thus, nang-gi na-ming, thee-of thy-name, thy name;  $m\bar{a}-gi$  ma-chan, him-of his-sister, his sister. Sometimes the genitive is used alone; thus  $ma-h\bar{a}k-ki$   $la\bar{u}-buk-t\bar{a}$ , his fields-to. The pronoun  $m\bar{a}$  has apparently a very wide use in the formation of substantives. Thus we find ma-pham, place; ma-tam, time;  $ma-y\bar{a}m$ , multitude. It seems to give a more definite sense to the word and occurs in phrases such as ma-tam  $a-du-d\bar{a}$ , time that-at.

Demonstrative pronouns.—A-si and ma-si, this; a-du and ma-du, that. The plural is formed by adding sing.

There are no Relative pronouns. The relative participle ending in  $b\bar{a}$  is used instead. Thus,  $lai-p\bar{a}k$   $a-du-d\bar{a}$   $lai-b\bar{a}$  mi ama-bu  $tin-na-ru-r\bar{e}$ , country that-in living man one (he) joined; iroi a-du ma-kok thang- $b\bar{a}$   $ma-s\bar{a}$   $kh\bar{a}i-bok$   $a-m\bar{a}$ , buffalo that its-head towards-being body half one, the part of the body of the buffalo which was towards the head. The pronoun a-du, that, is usually added as a kind of correlative. Thus, ai-gi  $lai-ri-b\bar{a}$  pum-na-mak a-du, mine being all that, all that I have.

The Interrogative pronouns are  $kan\bar{a}$  or  $kan\bar{a}$ -no, who ?  $kar\bar{i}$ , what ? kari-no and kari-na-no, why ?  $kay\bar{a}$ , how many ? etc. Kari-na-no, why ? is often used where we would say 'because.'

Indefinite pronouns.—Khara and khara-dang, some; kanā-gumbā, whom like, somebody; karī-gumbā, what like, something; kanā ama-ta, no one, etc.

**Verbs.**—Verbs are not inflected in person and number. In one instance the possessive pronoun precedes the verb. Thus,  $m\bar{a}$  ma-to-mat $\bar{a}$  ma-ch $\bar{a}i$ , he alone hiseating (-took-place), he alone ate.

There is often no difference between the present and past times. The root alone seems occasionally to be used to denote both; thus, nang oi, thou art; ma-yāma $d\bar{a}$  pi, his-elder-brother-to (he) gave. But generally one of the suffixes i,  $\bar{i}$ ,  $\bar{e}$ , ni, li,  $l\bar{i}$ , and  $l\bar{e}$  are added. I or  $\bar{i}$  is the common assertive suffix and is used both in the present and in the past; thus, chā-i, he eats; ai-nā phū-i, I strike; pok-i, were borne; hang-i, he asked; chup- $\bar{i}$ , he kissed. The suffix  $\bar{e}$  is commonly used to denote the past; thus, nīng-ē, he wished; lāk-ē, he came, he has come. The suffixes ni, li, lī, and lē are perhaps compound forms, consisting of la and the suffixes i and  $\bar{e}$ . The meaning of lacannot be ascertained. Thus, ai-gi-ni, it is mine; ai chat-li, I go; phang-li, they are receiving; sī-gā-dau-rī, I am dying; san sel-lī, cattle he-is-grazing; chat-lī, he went; woi-d-rē, I have not yet become; ai-nā phū-rē, I struck, I have struck; ai chat-lē, I went, I have gone. Mr. Primrose mentions several other suffixes such as khī, khī-ē, khi-ri, khrē, lui, luē, lu-rē, la-ri, la-rē, lammi, lammē, lam-li and lam-lē. It will be seen that all of them contain some of the suffixes mentioned in the foregoing, preceded by some new element. The prefixed syllables are kha or khi, lu, la, and lam. All these forms are compound verbs, but they may be dealt with in this place because we are unable to see the exact meaning of the modifying additions. Kha, khi, is said to have reference to something immediate; thus, hao-khi-bā, away, from hao-bā, to start; kēmkhi-bā, fallen off, from kēm, to fall; si-kha-rē, or si-khrē, died, etc. Khrē has often the meaning of completed action; thus, tau-khrē, I have done. Lu apparently refers the action to the past time or to a distant place; thus,  $t\bar{\imath}n$ -na-ru- $r\bar{e}$ , went and joined; sī-ru-ra-bā-da-gī, after his having died. The suffix la seems to refer to the past time. It occurs, in the form ra, in the instance just quoted. Lam occurs as a noun meaning 'way,' 'manner,' etc. We find it as a verbal suffix in forms such as ai- $n\bar{a}$   $ph\bar{u}$ -ram- $l\bar{e}$ , I had struck; ai lai-rammi, I was (Imperfect), etc.

In interrogative sentences a form ending in  $ba-g\bar{e}$  is often used; thus, nany-gi naming kari  $kau-ba-g\bar{e}$ , thee-of thy name what called-is? sa-gol a-si chahi  $ka-y\bar{a}$   $s\bar{u}-ra-ba-g\bar{e}$ , horse this years how-much amount? how old is this horse? etc. Compare future.

A kind of *Present definite* is effected by combining the participle in da-nā with some verb meaning 'to be'; thus, tong-da-nā lai, riding he is, he is riding. But we also find forms such as ai-nā phū-rī, I am striking; ai-nā phū-ram-lī, I was striking.

The suffix of the Future is ga, probably identical with the postposition  $g\bar{a}$ , with. The suffix  $\bar{e}$ , or a word ni, probably meaning 'to be,' is generally added. Thus, ai oiga-ni, I shall be;  $h\bar{a}i$ -ru- $kh\bar{i}$ - $g\bar{e}$ , I will go and say; ma-puk thal-han- $g\bar{e}$   $h\bar{a}i$ -du- $n\bar{a}$   $n\bar{i}ng$ - $\bar{e}$ , his-belly (he) will-fill saying (he) wished, he wished to fill his belly. The last instance shows how this form is used as an infinitive of purpose. Still more is this the case in sentences such as ai- $n\bar{a}$   $k\bar{e}n$ - $g\bar{e}$   $k\bar{e}n$ - $d\bar{e}$ - $d\bar{a}$ , I fall-will fell-not, I did not fall in order to fall, it was not my intention to fall;  $s\bar{i}$ - $g\bar{a}$ -dau- $r\bar{i}$ , I am dying, lit. die-will-prepare.

The suffixes of the *Imperative* are u and lu. Thus,  $p\bar{u}l$ -u, bind;  $p\bar{\imath}$ -yu and  $p\bar{\imath}$ - $b\bar{\imath}$ -yu, give; chat-lu, go; so-kat-lu, draw. In the third person sanu is added; thus, chat-sanu, let him go. This form is a compound, the latter part being the imperative of san- $b\bar{a}$  or sal- $b\bar{a}$ , to let, to allow. The suffix of the imperative of the first person plural is si; thus,  $ch\bar{a}$ -ra-si, let us eat; khal-la-si, let us use.

The suffix of the negative imperative is ga-nu; thus, kak-that-pi-ga-nu, don't cut; chat-ka-nu, don't go; chat-ka-nu-si, don't let us go; tau-bi-ra-ga-nu, please don't do so.

The suffix  $b\bar{a}$  or  $p\bar{a}$  is used to form Infinitives. The real meaning of this suffix seems to be somewhat the same as that of the Tibetan pa or ba. It is used to form the relative participle and is also added in order to form verbal nouns. Thus,  $na-h\bar{a}k-ki$   $na-ch\bar{a}-ni$   $h\bar{a}i-b\bar{a}$  ai-bu  $ma-t\bar{i}k$   $woi-dr\bar{e}$ , thee-of thy-son-am to say me-concerning fitness is-not, it is not proper to call me thy son;  $ai-n\bar{a}$   $ph\bar{u}-b\bar{a}$  ngammi, I can strike;  $oi-b\bar{a}$   $y\bar{a}i$ , I may be;  $isai-sak-p\bar{a}$ , song-singing. The suffix  $b\bar{a}$  is often preceded by na-na, and this form is used as an infinitive of purpose; thus,  $\bar{o}k$   $ma-y\bar{a}m$   $s\bar{e}n-na-na-b\bar{a}$ , swine herd tending for, in order to tend pigs. The infinitive of purpose may also be expressed by means of the future; see above.

Postpositions are often added to the verbal noun in  $b\bar{a}$ , and in this way adverbial clauses are formed. Thus,  $ma\text{-}chin\text{-}ma\text{-}n\bar{a}o\ lan\ y\bar{e}n\text{-}na\text{-}ba\text{-}d\bar{a}$ , elder-brother-younger-brother property dividing-in, when the brothers divided the property;  $nu\text{-}mit\ ma\text{-}ny\bar{a}$   $ta\text{-}r\bar{u}k\text{-}ni\ lai\text{-}ra\text{-}ba\text{-}d\bar{a}$ , days five six having-been-in, when some days had passed;  $m\bar{a}ng\text{-}lu\text{-}ra\text{-}ba\text{-}da\text{-}gi$ , lost-having-been-after, after he had been lost;  $ma\text{-}ch\bar{a}\ pok\text{-}la\text{-}ba\text{-}di$ , if young ones were born; sit-pa-gi, blowing-from, while it blows; chat-ka-da-ba-gi thau-rany tau-ri, going-future-of preparation make, I am arranging to go;  $l\bar{a}k\text{-}pa\text{-}mak\text{-}ta\text{-}d\bar{a}$ , as soon as he came;  $phang\text{-}la\text{-}ba\text{-}n\bar{a}$ , because he found, etc.

The form ending in  $b\bar{a}$  can apparently also be used to denote present and past times of the verb. Thus,  $m\bar{a} \cdot gi$  damak  $ch\bar{a}k$  khāng- $b\bar{i} \cdot r\bar{i} \cdot b\bar{a}$ , his sake-for (thou) feast gavest. But more commonly ni is added in this sense; thus,  $tau \cdot ba \cdot ni$ , it has been done;  $phang-la \cdot ba \cdot ni$ , he is found again;  $k\bar{e}n \cdot b\bar{a} \cdot ni$ , I am falling, etc.

Participles.—The Relative participle has been mentioned under Relative pronouns. Adverbial participles may be formed by adding suffixes or postpositions to the verbak noun ending in bā. Often, however, the various forms of the verbs are used in the

same way as the verbal noun. Thus, chat-li-ngai-da, went-time-at, at the time of going; thap-nā lai-ri-ngai-nā, far-off being-time-at, when he was far off; thu-nā, quickly; harāo-nung-ngai-nā, with joy and gladness; nu-mit khara lai-ra-ga, days some being, after some days; hai pāl-la-gā, fruits produced-with, when fruits shall have been produced. The participle ending in  $ga-da-b\bar{a}$  (negative  $loi-da-b\bar{a}$ ) is a relative participle or gerund, referring to the future time. Thus, ai-nā phang-ga-da-bā (phang-loida-ba) lan-saruk, me-by to-be-got (not-to-be-got) property-share, the share of the property which I shall (shall-not) receive; ai-khoi ha-rāo-nung-ngāi-ga-da-bā ma-tīk woi. we glad-happy-future-being fitness is, it is proper that we should be glad and happy. Compare Relative pronouns. The suffix of the Conjunctive participle is da-nā or du-nā. Thus, ai-nā hau-gat-tu-nā ai-gi i-pā-gi ma-nāk-tā hāi-ru-khī-gē, I arising me-of myfather's his-presence-in say-will, I will arise and go and say to my father; lan pum-nāmak khom-jī-la-du-nā pu-du-nā a-rāp-pā lai-pāk a-ma-dā chat-thok-i, property all-even gathering carrying far country one-to (he) went; ma-nāo a-du-nā sing-bā hēn-da-nā, his younger-brother that clever excelling, his younger brother was more clever and. yēn-na-da-nā chā-ra-si, dividing let us eat. This participle of the verb hāi, to say, is often used in connection with a future in order to express the purpose of an action. Thus, sing oi-na-ga-ni hāi-da-nā, fuel be-will saying, in order to make fuel. The words sing oi-na-ga-ni must be considered as a kind of substantive clause, and also other tenses than the future may be used in this way. Thus, ma-yāma-gi san ma-chin-nā tau-ba-ni hāi-du-nā, his-elder-brother's cattle its-mouth-by done-was saying, saying that it had been done by the mouth of the elder brother's cattle. Note the possessive pronoun of the third person, ma-yāma, his brother.

There is no Passive voice. Ai-by phù-i, I was struck, means literally 'me he struck,' or 'me-concerning striking-took-place.'

Compound verbs are freely used. Causatives are formed by adding hal or han; thus, set-hal-lu, cause-him-to-put-on; sing-hal-li, caused to make good; thal-han-gē, he will cause to be full, etc. The verb pi, give, seems to be used in a transitive sense; thus, nung-sī-bī-rē, pitied; sī-bī-yu, be pleased to put on, etc. Cha means that the action is performed by oneself. Thus, chat-cha-ru-khi-gē, I will go and do the thing myself (cha) some way off (ru). Kat or gat, occurs in hīng-gat-lak-pā-ni, alive-again-come-has; hau-gat-tu-nā, having arisen. Lāk, to come, is found in compounds such as nīng-sīng-lāk-tu-nā, to-remember-beginning; pu-rāk-tu-nā, carrying-coming, bringing. Na denotes mutuality; thus, yei-na-bā, to strike each other, to fight. Thok, to occur, is used in many compounds, apparently without altering the meaning; thus, chat-thok-i, went away; hāi-thok-i, said, ordered, etc. It sometimes forms causatives; thus, chen-thok-pā, to drive away. Yām-ba, much, is added in wā-yām-i, it is troublesome, etc.

The Negative particle is da or ta. Thus,  $phatta-b\bar{a}$ , good-not, bad;  $p\bar{\imath}-ja-d\bar{e}$ , that is  $p\bar{\imath}-ja-da-\bar{e}$ , gave not;  $h\bar{\imath}k-thok-t\bar{e}$ , disobeyed not, etc. Another negative is loi; thus, tau-roi, will not do; chat-loi, will not go. The initial l seems to assimilate itself to a preceding consonant; thus, chang-ngoi, will not enter. This negative is especially used in a future sense.

The Interrogative particle is no; see Interrogative pronouns. In disjunctive questions, where no interrogative pronoun is used, the suffix ra is added. Thus,  $m\bar{a}$   $l\bar{a}k$ -pro  $l\bar{a}k$ -ta-bra, has he come or not?

Order of words.—The usual order of words is subject, direct object, indirect object, verb.

[No. I.]

# TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. Kuki-Chin Group.

MANIPURI OR MEITHEL

### SPECIMEN I.

(The Rev. Wm. Pettigrew, 1896.)

(STATE, MANIPUR)

मा किस मान ता मान का में का माना। मार्थिक क्षेत्र स्थाविक क्षेत्र क्षेत्र क्ष मिणाले नेप, मेरे! क्या है मेरे पर र लाम 四湖 更知的对为 四层别法, 四湖州 带神的 डमार त्वा र्वाल मह कराड़े रन समदेसक किन्द्रान्त्र स्वामन 芝州 四年的 日午的的双河一种原井 西州的 正年日午 下午的四日日 田田日 月年日 中東 10 市田里。1 至二 四年四年四 四月 江井市的市 美国人 医生生不 大田田 大田田山 大百日子 माला मारे में का का दें। में का मारे में मेरे रामा क्यां रेगा मन कमा ह 新中央到出。 用为双京 市里 EPA 15年 मत्रक रिका हुड़े कि क्राय्य के अन्ति के अन्ति

### [No. I.]

# FIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

## KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

## MANIPURI OR MEITHEI.

## SPECIMEN I.

(	The Rev. Wm.	Pettigrew,	1896.)			(S:	FATE, MANIPUR.)
	Mi Man	a-ma-gi one-of	ma-c] his-ch		ni-pā <i>male</i>	a-n	i lai-rammi.
	Ma-bungā-n <i>Both-of</i>		ma-rak-tā midst-in	ma-: his-	nāo	a-tom	-bā a-du-nā
	ma-pā-dā his-father-to	hāi, <i>said</i> ,	' Pā-bā, ' <i>Father</i> ,	ai-nā <i>me-by</i>	phang-g	a-da-bā	ger that-by lan saruk property share
0	a-du <i>that</i>	ai-ngon-dā <i>me-to</i>	_	i-yu.' olease.'	A-	du-dā reupon	ma-pā-nā his-father-by
5.	ma-khoi  them	a-ni two-	of	da-mak sake-for		lan-thur	n yēl-lē.
	Nu-mit <i>Day</i> lan	khara some	lai-ra-gā were-when		80n	a-tom-	·bā a-du-nā
	property lai-pāk	pum-nā-ma all	ga	jil-la-du-n ethering		ou-du-nā carrying	a-rāp-pā <i>far</i>
	country	a-ma-dā one-to	100	thok-i.		a-pham <i>Pla<b>ce</b></i>	a-du-dā that-in
10	behaviour mäng-lē.	80	a-ba-ni-nā ad-with		ma-ran <b>s-s</b> ubstan	ce	pu <b>m-nā-mak</b> <i>all</i>
10.	lost-was.	Lan Property	pum-nā- all	mak	a-di that		tum-khra-ba-dā wasted-being-in
	lai-pāk country	a-du-dā that-in	yām-n exceedin		āng-ngar dearth-w		tāng-ngam-bā dearth
	a-d -dā that-in	mā-nā <i>him-by</i>	wā-ra <i>distresse</i> d			ā-rak-pā Distress	a-du-dā that-in
		lai-pāk country	a-du-dā that-in		ai-bā ving	mi <i>man</i>	a-ma-bu onc
	tīn-na-ru-rē. <i>joine</i> d.	H	-hāk-nā im-by	mā-l him		ok <i>pig</i>	ma-yām <i>herd</i>
15.	sēn-na-na-hā pasture-to	ına-hi <i>hi</i> s		laū-buk- fields-in		thā-i. sent.	Ma-pham Place

क्यां में हे कि मार्थ मार्थे मार हार ह माण्य क्रमत्याण क्रमण्य क्रमण्य, क्योग 四世 四日本中 南江 一个一个 मेटे कल्ला हो भी रक्षा है केत, केंद्र क्ष्या क मार्ग मार्ग मार्ग मार्ग मार्ग मार्ग प्राप्त के माउनेण देख, क्लोल कार महम कलते 医班多年 四十四月四十日 日日日 月十日日 क का में कि का के मा हिम्म के का का कि का का मारे करेंगा के का कि का किया है मामा 25 स्वा, क्रिक्ट क्रिक्ट के मा मा मिथा। आपिर म द्वा द्वा द्वा । यम् य म्या मिंग मिं हो में में का किया हिले के में में में 四年对江一四月四月日 市区 太阳公司区 1 मिल्य किया निरुत्त मिल्य मिल्य किया के मार्स स्वास्त क् का मा क मा के मा का का का का मिल्ला मला मला मला मला मिलारी। मुमाने क्यूने किमे लाग क्यूटे के इक्के हो स्तिश्य न यास द्वार पर हिला , यथी क मामा मुका क्ष्मिरेश हमिया मामा मूश्रा.

			•	MANIPURI	OR MEITE	lei.		á
	a-du-d that-in			ok-ki	chin-	chāk (cher	ıg-chāk)	wāi-nā
			•	piys'		food		husks-with
	ma-pu <i>his-bell</i>		al-han-gē fill-will	h	āi-du-nā saying		ing-ngē ; <i>oished ;</i>	a-du-g <i>but</i>
	ka-nā	a-ma-t	a-nā	mā-ngon	• •	pi-ja-d	-	Mā-du-d
	<i>any</i> mā-nā	one-i	•	him-to	,	ga <b>ve-hi</b> mse	elf-not.	Thereon
	him-by		puk-nung is-heart-is			ig-lak-tu-r		hāi, 'Ai-gi
20	•					ect-beginn	ing	said, 'Me-o
20	my-fati	•		ia-nāi-sing i <i>s-servants</i>				thok-pā-thok-ni ugh-overflowing
	chin-ch	āk ph	ang-li,	a-du-gi	ā ai	-nā j	ma-phan	
	food		ing-are,	but		e-by	place	n a-si-d <i>i</i> this-i
	. [chāk-]	lām-ba-nā	si-	ga-dau-ri.		Ai-nā	prace	
	hung	er-with		ying-am.		Me-by		hau-gat-tu-ni arising
	ai-gi		i-pā-gi		ma-nāk	•		hāi-ru-[khi-]gē
	me-of	m	y-father-c	of	his-presen			say-go-will,
	" pā-bā		warga-bu		māi	on-i	thok-tu-r	
	"father	, h	eaven-fron	n	face		urning	<sup>nā</sup> pār sin
<b>25.</b>	tau-rē	, n	a-hāk-ki	n	a-māng-da		pāp	
	done-ha	lone-have, thee-o			presence-i		рар 8 <b>іп</b>	tau-rē, done-have,
	na-hāk-l	ki	na-chā-n			hāi-bā ai		
	thee-of	i	thy-son-a		saying		me-to	ma-tik
	woi-d	rē ;	na-l	nāk <b>-k</b> i			110-10	fitness.
	has-not-	•		ee-of	#1	na-nāi h <i>y-servant</i>		a-mā-gum-nā
	tham-bi	·yu."		lu-da-gi	••	mā-nā		one-as
	make-pl	ease.'''		at-after		him-by		hau-gat-tu-nā arising
	ma-hāk-		a-pā	tānā	.chat-	li. N	ſā-du-dā	thāp-nā
	him-of	Ū	father	towards	went	•	Then	far-off
<b>30.</b>	lai-ring-	_	m	a-hāk-ki		ma-pā-nā		ma-hāk-pu
	remaini	g-while		him-of	7.	is-father-t		him
	u-ra-du		nung-si-b	oi-rē,	a-ma-	sung	che	n-sin-khi-du-nā
	seen-have	ing e	compassion	ı-had,	and	•		nning-towards
	mā-gi	nga	ksam	kor	1-du-nā	n	aā-bu	
	his	ne	eck .	eml	bracing		h <b>i</b> m	chup-i <i>kissed</i> .
	Chup-pā	a-du-	dā r	na-chā	ni-pā	a-du	-ทภิ	
	Kissing	that-	in h	is-child	male	that-	_	mā-ngon-dā h <b>im-to</b>
	hāi,	'Pā-	bā,	swarg	a-bu	māi	•	
	said,	'Fati	-	heaven		face		on-thok-tu-nā turning
35.	pāp	tau-rē,	na-hāk		na-māng		pāp	tau-rē,
	sin (	lone-have,	thee-c	of t	hy-presenc	0-612-0700	sin	done-have,

१० भियार प्रामेर कार्य भार मार्थ व्याप्त व्याप्त पा भीक भागम मान्य प्रमान कामा कामा निस्माधमा मेळ में किए प्राण्याचित्र 四十八二里 田田公 田河田 田田子 , 应从gx 血势 WW WANY 世四人从 型级 W प्रणामपाइ, कार किता तथा है डके तह मेमर मे मरिला W क मारेट तारे प्रका कि हाय ए का समावा का वा का के भाग नि मार्ट द पर में हा का के क्रम् माना क्रम्म हिड्डा । क्रिया मिया मार्थित स्था भारती क्षेत्र क्षेत्र क्षेत्र हर कर इसमान हेक्ट्रांट हेक्ट्रांट ग्रमले में रहम भाषामा का भारता है। प्राथित में भिर्म स्थान मार्थित स्थित स्थित कार्ण काम है जिल्ली है भी का लिए हैं ला मिर्ट मिल्ल में किले किला किया किया । हिर्मित्व एट्ट रेम्परः, कमा दे हिर्मित्व एकन्य म् म् मान्य व्याप्त विश्व मेळ प्रकाशा मिल्ला मार्गिक प्रवासिक भ्यात्र मात्र भ्रात्र भ्रात्र

	na-hāk-ki	na-chā-ni	hāi-bā	ma-i	ik	woi-d-rē.'
	thee-of	thy-son-am	saying	fitne		is-not.
	A-du-gā	ma-pā-nā	ma	-nāi-sing-dā		hāi-thok-i,
	But	his-father-by		-servants-to		said,
	'Khwāi-da-gi	h <b>ēn-n</b> ā	pha-bā p	ohi thu-	nā	pu-rak-tu-nā
	`All-than	more	good cl	oth quick	ly	bringing
	sēt-hal-lu;	a-ma-su	ng	ma-hāk-ki		ma-khut-tā
	to-wear-cause;	and		him-of		his-hand-on
<b>4</b> 0.	khudom	a-mā si-su	si-bi-yu;	ma-khong	;-dā	khugrāng-su
	ring	one also	put;	his-foot-	าก	sandals-also
	up-pi-yu;	ai-khoi	harāo-nung-n	_		iā-mi-na-si,
	put-on;	we	joy-happiness	_	ood-eat-to	gether-let-us,
	ka-ri-na-nō	hai-ba-bu	•	·gi	i-chā	a-si
	why?	said- <b>is-</b> if		e-of	my-80 <b>n</b>	t h <b>i</b> s
	si-ru-ra-ba	•		-lak-pa-ni ;		a-ma-sung
	died-far-off-had	-	•	ain-came;		and
	māng-lu-ra	•	a-muk	phang-la-b		Mā-du-dā
	lost-far-off-l	een-after	again	found-we	18.	Thereu pon
<b>45.</b>	ma-khoi-nā		a-rāo-nung-ngā			
	them-by		ejoice-make-m	erry-began.		
	Ma-tam	a-du-dā	ma-hāk-ki	ma-chā	a-hal	a-du-nā
	Time	tha <b>t-a</b> t	him-of	h <b>i</b> 8-80n	eldest	that-by
	lau-buk-tā	lai-rammi.	Lāk-tu-		-tu-nā	yum-dā
	fields-in	was.	Comin	g co	ming	house-to
	thung-la-ba-da			k-pa-gi		ma-khol-su
	reaching-in	song	8i?	rging-of	i	ts-sound-also
	jagoi-sā-ba-gi	ma-k]		tā-du-n		ma-nāi
	dancing-of	its-sour	nd-also	hearing	1	his-servant
<b>50.</b>	ni-pā	a-ma-bu	<b>kau-d</b> u-nā		•	'Ka-ri-gi
	male	one	calling	ask	ed,	"What-of
	nīn-k <b>hongi-</b> ba	-nō?'	Mā-nā	<b>mā-</b> ng		hāi,
	noise-is?'		Him-by	hin	n-to	said,
	' Na-hāk-ki	na-não	lāk-ē,	a-ma-s	ung	na-hāk-ki
	' Thee-of	thy-younger-brothe	er came,	and		thee-of
	na-pā-nā	ma-hāk-pu	a-nā-yēk	lai-ta-nā	, p	hang-la-ba-dā
	thy-father-by	him	sickness	<b>wi</b> thout		finding-in
	ehāk-khāng-b	i-rē.' ]Mā-	·du-dā	m <b>a-hāk-n</b> ā		são-ra-du-nā
	feast-given-h	as.' Alher	eupon	him-by		angry-getting
<b>55</b> .	im-ung	chang-ngoi	hāi-du-n	ā hi	āi.	Mā-duk-tā
	house-in	enter-will-not	<b>sayi</b> ng	8a	id	Therefore

मिश्रियात्म महाता दे किश्रियात् महाता दे किश्रिया ा भ्राम्य स्थाप भ्राम्य । क्रिक्रिया । क्रिक्रिया । लिम्म् म्रिक मान कर्मार्मा । प्रकेत स्थापे क्रान्य प्रक्रिय ◎ 万成 M成四(成文·) 西湖南美洲 西江村 उटालामा म्हातीति व विमाति ति के क्रमहत्वक MFW = 西班牙公公 PFE F 西西北 कार स्मा हमें स्था भें के स्था के दिया हमे क्षाम दश्यकाणाम् दश्यक्षाद क्षेत्र द्वार व्यक्त व्यक्त क्षेत्र क ००मर हेम्स मा मि कर नरे ते कि मार M मार मार मेक्ट्रिश का की मिल्ली मिल्ली है कि कि प्रम किया दिया स्टाम्ट महर यह ह कार्षे देस्ला क्षेत्र के कार्षे 10 Early mire मध्य क्या द्वार दा। क्रिलायास्त्रे प्रिय याव्याक ल्यां भिश्वात १७७० किमासका यश्य व्यक्तिम क्ष्या कस् काषा का वा वा वा वा वा वा भागार राष्ट्रमात्म, कस्तां के में रक्षे रेगामे " क्रिक हेरहड़ी ।=

	ma-hāk-ki	-	jā-nā	t	hok-la-du-nā	<b>3</b>	ma-hāk-pu
	him-of	h <b>i</b> s-fat	her-by		coming-out		him
	thēm-jil-lē.	A	-du-gā		ma-hāk-nā		ma-pā-dā
	entreated.		But		him-by		his-father-to
	khum-i,		ng-u,		chahi		a-sup-ta-gi
	answered,	'Be	hold,	;	years	•	so-many-from
	na-nāi	lai-ri-bā	-	-si-nā	na-hāk-ki		yā-thang-bu
	thy-servant	being	th	iis-by	thee-of		orde <b>r</b>
<b>60.</b>	khak	hik-thok-	•		a-du-mak-pu		ai-gi
	ever	disobeyed-	not;		even-consider	ing	me-of
	i-rup my-friends	i-pāng-gā m <b>y-companion</b>		harāo-mi[n <i>rejoice</i>	_	_	n-na-na-ba-gi na <i>bling-of</i>
	da-mak	a-muk-ta-su	l	ha-mēng	ma-	chā	a-ma-dang
	sake-for	even		goat	its- $ye$	oung	one
	ai-ngon-dā	pi-dē ;		<b>a</b> -du-gā	nang	-gi	na-chā
	me-to	gavest-not	;	but	thee	-of	thy-son
	a-si-di		nott	ini-sing-gā			loi-na-du-nā
	this		har	rlots-with			living
65.	nang-gi	na-ran		hun	-jēk-pa-bu		mā-nā
00.	thee-of thy-property			throwing	-away-althou	g <b>h</b>	him-by
	hēk-lāk-pa-	mak-ta-dā		mā-g	i		da-mak
	-	18-80011-a8		his			sake-for
	chāk-khāng	g-bi-ri-bā.'	Mā-du	ı-dā	ma-pā-nā		mā-ngon-dā
	feast-mae		There	upon	his-father-l	y	him-to
	hāi,	' Angān	ς,		nang-di		i-tat- <b>t</b> at-ta-nā
	said,	' Child	<i>!</i> ,		thou		always
	ai-gā	lai-n	ninnai;		a-mā-hē	k-su	ai-gi
	me-with	art-te	gether;	;	and-a	lso	my
70	lai-ri-bā	,	oum-na-	mak	a-du		nang-gi-ni.
10.	being	•	all		that		thine-is.
	A-du-gā		i-khoi		1	arāo-nung	-ngāi-ga-da-bā
	But		we				happy-being
	ma-tik	1	voi ;	1	ca-ri-na-no		hāi-ba-bu,
	fitness	· 5.	is ;		why?		said- $is$ - $if$ ,
	1		aão -		a-si	81	-ru-ra-ba-da-gi
	nang-gi thee-of	thy-young		her	this		ead-being-after
	hing-gat-le		**	a-ma-su	ng	mäng	-lu-ra-ba-da-gi
				and	•	los	t-being-after
75							

[No. 2.]

### TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

### KUKI-CHIN GR

#### MANIPURI OR MEITHEL.

### SPECIMEN II,

(STATE, MAN

# A PIECE OF FOLKLORE TAKEN DOWN FROM THE MOUTH AN OLD MANIPURI.

(Babu Bisharup Singh, 1899.)

Ma-māngai-dā ni-pā a-ma-nā ma-chā ni-pā a-ni pok-i. Nu-mit his-child male two born-were. Formerly man one-by Days. lai-ra-gā ma-pā 'a-du iroi amom a-mā kaboi pām-bi remaining their-father thatbuffalo female onepomegranate plant kāng-khal a-mā a-si tha-nam-da-nā si-kha-rē. Ma-chin-ma-nāo lan yēn-nacurtain thisleft-having died.**Brothers** property dividia ma-não a-du-nā sing-bā hēn-da-nā iroi a-du ma-kok tha cunning more-being buffalo that his-younger-brother that-by its-head to khāi-bok a-mā ma-sā ma-yāma-dā pi-ra-gā ma-mai thang-bā his-elder-brother-to its-body-of half one giving its-tail towards lan-i. mā-nā Kaboi a-du-su ma-khong-lom-gi khāi-bok him-by takes.Pomegranate that-also its-foot-from halfma-yāma-dā pi-ra-gā ma-nā ma-ton thang-ba a-du lau-i. Känghis-elder-brother-to giving him-by its-top towards that takes. Curt mā-nā lau-ra-gā nung-thin a-du-su ahing ma-yāma-dā ni. T that-also at-night him-by taking at-day his-elder-brother-to gives. Bimi-gi yen-sang-na-pi cha-ru-ra-ba-da a-du-nā ma-yāma-gi san ma-chi that-by men-of vegetableseating-in his-elder-brother's cattle its-mou tau-ba-ni hāi-da-nā mā-bu sing-hal-li, a-du-gā ma-chā pok-ladone-is saying. himto-make-good-caused, and its-young born mā-nā lau-i, a-du-gā sangom-su mā-nā chāi Kaboi a-du-su ma him-by takes, milk-also and him-by eats. Pomegranate thut-also its-f pāl-la-gā mā ma-tomatā mā chā-i. borne-when he alone he eats.

Asum-dau-nā nu-mit ma-ngā ta-rūk-ni lai-ra-li Thus-doing days five sixDUSS! lai-kāi-nā tāk-pi-ra-da-nā ma-yāmā a-du-nā nongmā people of-the-quarter-by advised-having his-elder-brother that-by one-day oi-na-ga-ni hāi-da-nā ka-boi a-du ma-khong-dā yan-thck-ke tau-ra-b be-will saying pomegranate that its-foot-ut cut-will doing[No. 2.]

#### TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

## KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

#### MANIPURI OR MEITHEI.

### SPECIMEN II.

(STATE, MANIPUR.)

# A PIECE OF FOLKLORE TAKEN DOWN FROM THE MOUTH OF AN OLD MANIPURI.

(Babu Bisharup Singh, 1899.)

Ma-māngai-dā ni-pā a-ma-nā ma-chā ni-pā a-ni pok-i. Nu-mit kharā his-child male two born-were. one-bu **Formerly** man Days. some 'a-du iroi lai-ra-gā ma-pā amom a-mā kaboi pām-bi a-mā remaining their-father that buffalo female one pomegranate plant one kāng-khal a-mā a-si tha-nam-da-nā si-kha-rē. Ma-chin-ma-nāo lan yen-na-ba-dathisleft-having curtain died.**Brothers** property dividing-in a-du-nā 'iroi a-du ma-kok thang-bā ma-não sing-bā hēn-da-nā cunning more-being buffalo that its-head towards that-by his-younger-brother khāi-bok a-mā ma-vāma-dā ma-sā pi-ra-gā ma-mai thang-bā a-du half his-elder-brother-to its-body-of onegiving its-tail towards that lan-i. Kaboi mā-nā a-du-su ma-khong-lom-gi khāi-bok a-mã him-by takes.**Pomegranate** that-also its-foot-from halfone ma-yāma-dā pi-ra-gā ma-nā ma-ton thang-bā a-du ·lau-i. Kang-khal his-elder-brother-to giving him-by its-top towards that takes. Curtain a-du-su mā-nā lau-ra-gā nung-thin ahing ma-yāma-dā Iroi pi. that-also at-night him-by taking at-day his-elder-brother-to gives. Buffalo a-du-nā mi-gi yēn-sāng-nā-pi chā-ru-ra-ba-dā ma-yāma-gi san ma-chin-nā men-of regetables. that-by eating-in his-elder-brother's cattle its-mouth-by hāi-da-nā tau-ba-ni mā-bu sing-hal-li, a-du-gā ma-chā pok-la-ba-di done-is saying himto-make-good-caused, andits-young born-if mā-nā lau-i, a-du-gā sangom-su 'mā-nā chāi Kaboi a-du-su ma-hai him-by takes, undmilk-also him-by eats. Pomegranute that-also its-fruits pāl-la-gā mā ma-tomatā mā chā-i. borne-when he alone he eats.

Asum-dau-nā nu-mit ทาล-ทฐลั ta-rūk-ni lai-ra-ba-dā Thus-doing days five six: passing lai-kāi-nā tāk-pi-ra-da-nā ma-yāmā nongmā a-du-nă sing people of-the-quarter-by advised-having his-elder-brother one-day fuel thut-by oi-na-ga-ni hāi-da-nā ka-boi a-du ma-khong-dā yan-thek-ke tau-ra-ba-da be-will saying pomegranate thatits-foot-ut doing-in cut-will

a-du-hā, 'Hai pāl-la-gā yen-na-da-na chā-ra-si,' hāi-da-nā ma-não his-younger-brother that-by, 'Fruits borne-when dividing cat-let-us, swing hāi-ja-da-nā tok-lē. Ma-yāmā a-du-ni. 'iroi a-du wā-yām-i, mi-gi requesting stopped. His-elder-brother that-by, buffalo that troublesome-is, men-of hāi-da-nā, 'ma-yāi-thi-gāng-dā kak-that-kē,' hāi-da-nā chā-gal-li,' yēn-sāng-nā-pi 'the-middle-in eats-habitually, saying, cut-will, 8aying vegetables kak-thatma-chā pok-lak-pa-su yēn-na-da-nā lau-ra-si tau-ba-dā, 'sangom su, take-let-us cutborn-also dividina 'milk also, its-young doing-in, a-du-nā hāi-ja-ra-da-nā tok-lē. Kāng-khal a-du ma-não pi-ga-nu,' hāi-da-nā please-don't,' saying his-younger-brother that-by requesting stopped. Curtain that a-du-ĥā nung-thin-nu-mit-chup-pā ising-dā ting-da-nā tham-le: all-the-day water-in souking kept; his-elder-brother that-by 'thai-nā-thai-nā khal-la-si, tau-bi-ra-ga-nu,' a-du-nā, ma-não a-du-dā use-let-us, do-plcase-don't,' his-younger-brother that-by, 'alternately thereupon yā-da-nā a-si-gi a-du-su A-du-dā ma-yāmā hāi-ja-rē. hāi-da-nā Thereupon his-elder-brother agreeing this-of that-also requested. saying ma-tung-dā khat-nā chai-nā lai-ta-nā ma-chin-ma-nāo pān-khi. quarrel dispute being-not the-brothers lived. its-back-at

### FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Once upon a time a man had two sons. After some time he died, leaving behind him a buffalo-cow, a pomegranate tree, and a curtain. When the two brothers proceeded to divide the property, the younger brother, who was the more clever of the two, arranged the matter in the following way. He gave the front part of the buffalo, including the head, to his elder brother, and retained himself the other half, from the tail and forwards. And he gave his brother the lower part of the pomegranate tree, and took himself the top. With regard to the curtain, he used it at night, and left it to his brother during day time. When the buffalo ate the crops of other people he made his brother give damages, because the outrage was done by the head, which belonged to the elder. But he claimed for himself the calves which were born, and the milk. And he also reserved the fruits of the pomegranate tree for himself.

In this way some time passed. The elder brother w, s advised by the neighbours, and one day he went to fell the pomegranate tree in order to get fuel. But the younger brother now proposed that they should divide the fruits between them, and thus prevented the felling of the tree. Now the elder brother declared that he would kill his part of the buffalo, because it gave him such trouble in eating the crops of other people. The younger brother then stopped him, saying that they might also take each his share of the milk and of the young buffaloes. Then the elder brother took the curtain and kept it during the day in water. The other then proposed that they should use the curtain alternately. Both agreed, and after that time they lived without quarrelling.

## TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

# KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

## MANIPURI OR MEITHEI.

## SPECIMEN III.

(STATE, HILL TIPPERA.)

### A FOLKSONG.

Ching-dā		sāt-pā	ingēnā-lai,
<i>Mountain-in</i>		ossomed	parasite-flower,
Chin <b>-n</b> a-tnā Suddenly	\	khi-bā m-has	pā-mu-ē.  matter-of-regret.
Ai-nā <i>Me-by</i>	${f k}$ ēn ${f f}all$ -	•	kên-dê-dā, fall-not,
Mā-lāng- <b>bā-nā</b>		sit-pā-gi	kēn-bā-ni.
Wind-by		<i>ing-because</i>	fallen-have.
Mā-lāng-bā		ai-sung	kai-tau-dē
Wind		<i>I-also</i>	nothing-do
Lai-rāng	lai-khâk	lai-bā-gi	kēn-bā-ni.
Flower's	stalk	on-account-of	fallen-is.

# FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

The parasite-flower blossomed in the mountain. You are falling off without having been of use; it is a pity.

The flower answers,—I am not falling off of my own free will. I am falling because the wind blows.

The wind answers,—I, too, am doing nothing. The flower is falling because the strength of its stem is diminished.

The tribes Andro, Sengmai, and Chairel have been classed by Mr. Damant as belonging to the Kuki-Chin group. He says further about the Lūis:—

'This term which means "slave or dependent," is applied by the Manipuri to three small tribes which inhabit the valley of Manipur; they are called Sengmai, Undro, and Chairel; all of them speak different dialects, but with a considerable mixture of Manipuri words. Their religion is Pagan, tinged by Hinduism. In dress and appearance they are hardly to be distinguished from Manipuri. The Sengmai have three villages, with 120 houses and a population of about 600; the Undro one village only, with 45 houses and a population of about 225. Of the Chairel, I have no exact statistics, but they have only two or three small villages. They are employed in making pottery and salt, and in distilling, occupations which the Manipuri despise.'

The Andro and Sengmai tribes claim, according to Major McCulloch, to have been the original inhabitants of the Manipur valley.

None of these dialects has been returned for the survey, and they have probably all disappeared. The vocabularies published by Major McCulloch show that they cannot belong to the Kuki-Chin group. But it has proved impossible to class them as belonging to any other group. There is apparently some connection with the Nāgā languages, especially with the eastern sub-group. But the materials available are not sufficient for a definite statement. The question must therefore be left open. But, in order to make it possible to compare the forms given by McCulloch with those occurring in other Tibeto-Burman languages, I have given them as an appendix to the Meithei list, because this language has, to a considerable extent, influenced the vocabulary of the Lūi dialects.

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- Damant, G. H.,—Notes on the Locality and Population of the Tribes dwelling between the Brahmaputra and Ningthi Rivers. Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, New Series, Vol. xii, 1880, pp. 228 and ff. Note on the Loce on pp. 241 and f.; short Undro vocabulary on p. 255.

# STANDARD WORDS AND SENTENCES IN MEITHEI, ANDRO, SENGMAI, AND CHAIREL.

E	nglish.			Meit	hei (Mar	aipur).		An	dro (McC	ulloch).		Sengmai (McCulloch).	Chairel (McCulloch)
1. One .	•	•		A-mā .	•	•		Hata			•		Ahul.
2. Two				A-ni				Kingha				965 114	Ūhūl.
3. Three	•	•	•	A-hūm .				Shomha		•		<b>0</b> 44 449	Thung kong.
4. Four	•	٠		Ma-ri .		•		Piha		•		,	Mu-ri kong.
5. Five			•	Ma-ngā .	•	•		Ngaha				*****	Ma-nga kong.
6. Six .	•			Ta-rūk .		•		Kokha				*****	Lü kong.
7. Seven		•		Ta-rēt .		•		Siniha				******	Sini kong.
8. Eight		•		Ni-pan .	•		•	Chatha			•	bas ros	Hũn ja.
. Nine		•		Mā-pan .	•	•		Tühüha				soooo <u>.</u>	Han ja.
). Ten	٠			Ta-rā .	•	•	•	Shët		•		340 ***	Shurak.
l. Twenty			•	Kul .	•	•	•	Hol		•		194 000	Kün duk.
2. Fi <del>fty</del>		•	٠	Yāng-khai		•	•	Ngangji		•		190000	Yangkei
. Hundred		•		Chā-mā .		•		Chata				*****	Cha.
.I.		•		Ai, i-hāk				Nga				Nga	Nga huk.
. Of me		•		Ai-gi .					••••			*****	701 904
. Mine	•			Ai-gi .	•	•		Nga ga					
. We .	•	•		Ai-khoi .					*****				Ngi muk.
. Of us	•			Ai-khoi-gi		•							144,500
. Our .	•	•	$\cdot$	Ai-khoi-gi	•				••••••				ras bell
. Thou	•			Nang, na-hi	k.			Nang .		•		Nang	Nang.
Of thee	•	•		Nang-gi.	•				••• •••			*****	•••••
. Thine		•		Nang-gi .	•			Nang ga	•			*******	*****
. You	•	•		Na-khoi					*****			*****	Ngo ukal
Of you	•	•		Na-khoi-gi					*****			*****	*****

Engi	lish.			Meit	thei (Manip	our).	An	dro (Mc	Culloc	h).		Sengmai	(McCt	illoch).	Chair	el(McCulloc	h).
5. Your	•	•	•	Nang-khoi	i-gi .	•		•••								*****	
6. He .			•	Mä, ma-hä	ik .	• .	Tik, i	•			. :	Hēro, hē		•	Meng mū,	meda.	
7. Of him		t	•	Mā-gi .	•	•	Tik ga	٠	•	•	.	Hē ga .	•	٠		******	
8. His .	•	•	•	Mā-gi .	•			•••	•••		-		•••••			******	
9. They		•	•	Ma-khoi					•••		1		••••		Nūnū.		
0. Of them	•	•	•	Ma-khoi-g	i.				•••		!		••• ••			*****	
1. Their	•	•	•	Ma-khoi-g	i.				•••				•••••			• • • • • •	
2. Hand	•	•	•	Khut .	•	•	Takhū	•		• .		Tahû ,		,	Lak.		
3. Foot		•	<b>.</b>	Khong .		•	Taka			• ,	.!	Tumpha			La.		,
4. Nose	•	•	•	Nā-ton .	•	•	Sanaütī	•	•	•	-	Sanung .			Sunga.		
5. Eye		•	•	Mit .	•	•	Mit	•	•		•		•		Hun tū.		
6. Mouth	•	•	•	Chin .	•	•	Shūn	•	•	•	•		••••		Dū khwi.		
7. Tooth	• .	•	•	Υā .	•	•	Sho	•	•		.   1	Shoa .	•	•	Ya.		
8. Ear .	•	•	•	Nā-kong	•	•	Ka-na	•	•	•	•		••••		Rīphī.		
9. Hair	•	•	•	Sam .	•	•	Hümi	•	•	•	•		*** ***		Sam.		
0. Head	•	•	٠	Kok .	•	•	Hürung	٠.	•	•	•		*** ***		Kū		
l. Tongue	•	•	•	Lei .	•	• ,		••	• • • •		i i		***			*****	
2. Belly	•	•	•	Puk .	•	•	Pak	• '		•			••••••		Phūk.		
3. Back	•	•	•	Namgan	•	•	Loma	•	•	• •		Lübal .	•	-	Yangel.		
4. Iron	•	•	•	Yot .	•	•	Sēn	•	•	•		Sēl .	•	•	Thir.		
45. Gold	•	•	•	Sanā .	•	•	Ku: .60	iong	•	•	•		••••		Sanna.	•	
46. Silver	•	٠	•	Rūpā	• •	•	On	•	•	•		Ngon .	•	•	Rūpa.		
47. Father	•	•	•	Ма-ра	• •	•	А-ра	•	•	•	•	A-po .	•	•	A-pha.		
49. Brother	•	٠	•	Ma-mā		•	A-mā	•	•	i	•		•••••		Au.		
50. Sister	•	•	•	Gomego							١	Api (elder),			(younger	elder), •).	<u> </u>
51, Man	•	•	•	Ma-chem (younge	7).	ma-cha	(youn		r),	lüchu		Apī (elder),	chūl	(younger)	(younger	(elder), ).	vā-su
		•	•	Mi, ni-pā	•	•	. Tiksa-l	10ra	•	•		Tikhora	•	•	Pasal.		

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English.	Meithei (Manipur).	Andro (McCulloch).	Sengmai (McCulloch).	Chairel (McCulloch).
52. Woman	Nu-pi	Tiksa yahū		Thaloi.
53. Wife	Ma-tu	40>**	*****	*******
54. Child	Angäng, ma-chū	,,	****	e <b>0</b> 0 500
55. Son	Ma-chā ni-pā	Saija hora	Sa hora	Na sa.
56. Daughter	Ma-chā nu-pi	Saija yahū	Sa yahû	Na sa nūpi.
57. Slave	Mi nāi	****	******	<b>30. 50.</b>
58. Cultivator	Lau n-bū mi	*** 1**	****	****
59. Shepherd	Yāo sēn-bā mi	*** :4*	***	******
60. God	Lāi	Surarel (A Manipurt god of the high heaven)	Lai	Lumpū.
61. Devil	Lai	Lai saroi		bes for
62. Sun	Nu-mit	Cha-mit	141001	Sal
63. Moon	Thš	Satha		Lēt.
64. Star	Tha-wân bi-châk	Sangun si	487848	Tawal piohak.
65. Fire	Mai	Wal	******	Phul.
66. Water	Ising (tu-ren, river)	Mē	*****	Di.
67. House	Yum	Kem	* ************************************	Him.
68. Horse	Sa-gol	Shūrūk	190 001	La tarau.
69. Cow	Sal, san-bi	Sok	Ngo	Sa műk.
70. Dog	Ний	Ki	*	Hwi.
71. Cat	Han-dong	Hunggen	Huljik	Handong.
72. Cock	Yēl lā-bā.	Ü (hen)	911 944	Phū (hon).
73. Duck	Ngā-nū	******	*****	15441
74. Ass	Gādhā	<b>****</b> ********************************	100 1.0	******
75. Camel	Űt	Det cos		gqq 24
76. Bird	U-chek	Ūjik 🖦		Phú.
77. Go	Chat-la	Shai	Sare	A-ka-do.
78. Eat	Chā-ru	Shai ,	Sarē	Sědě.
	1		<u> </u>	K-C G-47

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English.			Meithei	(Manipu	ı <b>r).</b>		And	ro (McC	nlloch).		Sengm	ai (McCul	loch).		Chairel (McCulloch).
79. Sit			Pham-u .	•	•	$\cdot$	Tongtë		•	•	Thongde	•		•	Tongde.
30. Come .	,		Lāk-u .		•		Liyek			•	Līde .		•		Hongde.
31. Beat .			Phū .		•		Tantē		•		Tande .		•		Dhukde.
82. Stand .			Lēppu .		•		Chaptē		•			•••••			Chopde.
B3. Die		•	Si-ru .	•			Sidai		•		Shide		•		Thidī.
84. Give .	,	•	Pi-u .		•		Ītē				Īre		•		Nümde.
85. Run .			Chen-u .	•			Kate					••••••			Pingde.
86. Up		•	Mathak .		•			,				•••			*****
87. Near .			A-nak-pā	•	•		Thamo		•	•	Thumo				Anakpa,
88. Down ,		•	Ma-khā .	•	•	$\cdot$		•••••	•			*****			******
89. Far		•	A-thāp-pā	•	•		Lam jeo	•	•		Lam jau		•	•	Anappa.
90. Before		•	Ma-māng-dā	•	•			•••	•			*** ***			100280
91. Behind .		•	Ma-tung-dā	•	•			•••••	•					•	******
92. Who .		•	Kanā .	•	•	٠		•••	•			*****			100 100
93. What .		•	Ka-ri .	•	•			****	•						******
94. Why .		•	Ka-ri-gi-no	•	•	•	Haninga	ga .	•	•	Měkara		•	•	Tīsīka.
95. And .		•	Aduga .	3	•				•			*****			994 100
96. But .		•	Aduga .	•	•	٠		*** **	•			•••••			*******
97. If		•	Ba-di (a ver	bal suf	îx)	٠		*** **	•			•••••			*****
00.37.	٠	•	Hoi .	•	•	•	Hoi	•	•	•	Hau	•	•	•	Da ne.
100. Alas		•	Na-tē .	•	•		Noko	-	•	•	Noo	•	•	•	Dade maie.
100. Alas .		•	I-māi-pē-mā		k-pä	•		••••	•			*****			******
102. Of a father		•	. Ma-pā a-mā		•	•		••••							100.00
'03. To a father		•	Ma-pā a-ma-		•	•		*** **				•…••			*****
104. From a fat			. Ма-ра а-ma		•	•		•••	•			•••••			869 \ 66
105. Two father		•	. Ма-ра а-mа . Ма-ра а-ni	-ua-g1	•	•		****				*****			
	•	•	ww.be s-m	•	•	•		****	10			*****			257 +44

English.	Meithei (Manipur).	Andro (McCulloch).	Sengmai (McCulloch).	Chairel (McCulloch).
106. Fathers	Ma-pā sing			
107. Of fathers	Ma-pā sing-gi			
108. To fathers	Ma-pā sing-dā	•	·····	****440
109. From fathers	Ma-pā sing-da-gi .			
110. A daughter .	Ma-chā nu-pi a-mā			
111. Of a daughter	Ma-chā nu-pi a-ma-gi			
112. To a daughter	Ma-chā nu-pi a-ma-dā			
.13. From a daughter .	Ma-chā nu-pi a-ma-da-gi		••••	
114. Two daughters	Ma-chā nu-pi a-ni .			••••
115. Daughters	Ma-chā nu-pi sing .		·····	******
116. Of daughters	Ma-chā nu-pi sing-gi			*****
117. To daughters	Ma-chā nu-pi sing-dā	·		******
118. From daughters .	Ma-chā nu-pi sing-da-gi			•••••
il9. A good man	A-pha-bā ni-pā a-mā			•••••
120. Of a good man	A-pha-bā ni-pā a-ma-gi			
121. To a good man	A-pha-bā ni-pā a-ma-dā .		******	***
	A-pha-bā ni-pā a-ma-da-gi	·····	·····	444-1-
.23. Two good men	A-pha-bā ni-pā a-ni	******	*****	<b></b> .
.24. Good men	A-pha-bā ni-pā sing	•····	••••••	•••••
	A-pha-bā ni-pā sing-gi .		•••••	•••••
	A-pha-bā ni-pā sing-dā .	******	******	******
27. From good men	A-pha-bā ni-pā sing-da-gi .		•••••	•••••
20	A-pha-bā nu-pi a-mā		******	*****
00 0	Plia-ta-bā ni-pā ma-chā a-mā.	A-kumo (bad)	A-kurmo (bad)	Mei-kho (bad).
03 4 7 7 4	A-pha-ba nu-pi sing	•••••• •	•••••	******
	Pha-ta-bā nu-pi ma-chā a-mā.	******	******	****
32. Good	A-pha-bā	Kumo	Kurmo	Meineo.

English.	Meithei (Manipur).	Andro (McCulloch).	Sengmai (McCulloch).	Chairel (McCulloch).
33. Better	A-ni-da-gi hên-nā pha-bā .			••• :••
34. Best	A-khwāi-da-gi hēn-nā pha- bā.			
35. High	. A-wang-ba	Choko	Pau	Awangba.
36. Higher	. A-ni-da-gi hēn-nā wāng-bā			888.481
37. Highest	A-khwāi-da-gi hēn-nā wāng-bā.	******	******	
38. A horse	. Sa-gol lā-bā a-mā	\$00 (ga		******
39. A mare	. Sa-gol amom a-mā		,,,,,,	
40. Horses	. Sa-gol lā-bâ ma-yām	••••		•••••
141. Mares	. Sa-gol amom ma-yâm	*****	M*	
142. A bull	. Sal lā-bā a-mā			****
143. A cow	. Sal amom a-mū			
144. Bulls	. Sal lā-bā ma-yām .			•••••
145. Cows	. Sal amom ma-yām .			•••••
146. A dog	. Hũi lã-bũ a-mã			•••••
147. A bitch	. Hti amom a-mā .	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •		.,,
148. Dogs	. Hũi lã-bā ma-yām		***	100 ***
149. Bitches	. Hāi amom ma-yām			114 411
150. A he goat	. Hā-mēng lā-bā a-mā	. Kēmēk (a goat)		Kel (a goat).
151. A female goat .	Hā-mēng amom a-mā	. ,,,,,,,	*****	100 000
152. Goats	. Hā-mēng ma-yām .			490 411
153. A male deer .	. Sa-ngāi lā-bā a-mā .		*****	•••••
154. A female deer .	. Sa-ngāi amom a-mā .		r	, •••••
155. Deer	. Sa-ngāi			
156. I am	Ai oi	199 ***		
157. Thou art	Nang oi		******	
158. He is	. Ma oi	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •		***
159. We are	. Ai-khoi oi	*******	*****	•,

English,	Menthei (Manipur).	Andro (McCulloch).	Sengmai (McCalloch).	Chairel (McCulloch).
160. You are	Na-khoi oi		***	•••••
161. They are	Ma-khoi oi			
162. I was	Ai oi-ram-i			
163. Thou wast	Nang oi-ram-i		***.**	••••
184. He was ·	Mā oi-ram-i			*****
165. We were	Ai-khọi oi-ram-i			
166. You were	Na-khoi oi-ram-i			******
167. They were	Ma-khoi oi-ram-i		•••	
168. Be	Oi-u	Chai	Wai-thau-re	Leide.
169. To be	Oi-na-na-bā, oi-bā	•••••	411.00	*****
170. Being	Oi-du-nā	••• • • •	*****	,
171. Having been	Oi-ra-du-nā, oi-khi-du-nā			
172. I may be	Ai oi-bă yā-i	*** ***	a, 181	***
173. I shall be	Ai oi-ga-ni	Nga sa-jū (I shall go)	Nga sa-jero (I shall go)	Nga kanange (I shall go).
174. I should be	Ai oi-ga-ni	•••	******	
175. Beat	Phū	•••••	•••••	
176. To beat	Phū-bā, phū-na-na-bā	401.010	*****	*** ***
177. Beating	Phū-du-nā	gas pts	***	*****
178. Having beaten	Phū-ra-du-nā, phū-khi-du-		<b>5</b> 00.400	•••••
179. I beat	Ai-nā phū-i	441.005	ber og,	*****
180. Thon beatest	Nang-nā phū-i	*****	481194	*****
181. He beats	Mā-nā phū-i	*** ***	***,,,,	*** ***
182. We beat	Ai-khoi-nā phā-i	**	*****	400 upa
183. You beat	Na-khoi-nā phti-i	100000	******	•••••
184. They beat	Ma-khoi-nā phā-i		****	***
185. I bent (Past Tense) .	Ai-uā phū-rē	*****		<b>488 814</b>

ng-nā phū-rē  nā phū-rē  khoi-nā phū-rē  khoi-nā phū-rē  khoi-nā-phū-rē  nā phū-rī  nā phū-ram-li  nā phū-ram-lē  nā phū-ga-ni  ng-nā phū-ga-ni  nā phū-ga-ni				
khoi-nā phū-rē . khoi-nā phū-rēkhoi-nā-phū-rēnā phū-rīnā phū-ram-līnā phū-ram-lēnā phū-ga-ninā phū-ga-ni .				
khoi-nā phū-rē  -khoi-nā-phū-rē  nā phū-rī  nā phū-ram-li  nā phū-ram-lē  nā phū-ga-ni  ng-nā phū-ga-ni  -nā phū-ga-ni	•			
-khoi-nā-phū-rē .  nā phū-rī .  nā phū-ram-li .  nā phū-ram-lē .  nā phū-bā yā-i .  nā phū-ga-ni .  ng-nā phū-ga-ni .				
nā phū-ram-li nā phū-ram-lē nā phū-ram-lē nā phū-bā yā-i nā phū-ga-ni ng-nā phū-ga-ni -nā phū-ga-ni				
nā phū-ram-li nā phū-ram-lē nā phū-bā yā-i nā phū-ga-ni ng-nā phū-ga-ni -nā phū-ga-ni			•••••	
nā phū-ram-lē  nā phū-bā yā-i  nā phū-ga-ni  ng-nā phū-ga-ni  -nā phū-ga-ni				
nā phū-bā yā-i nā phū-ga-ni ng-nā phū-ga-ni -nā phū-ga-ni				******
nā phū-ga-ni ng-nā phū-ga-ni -nā phū-ga-ni		<b></b> .		
ng-ná phū-ga-ni . -ná phū-ga-ni .	•			
-ná phű-ga-ni .			,.,,.,	
			•	
		•••••		*** 40*
khoi-ņā phū-ga-ni		*****	******	400 144
-khoi-ņā phū-ga-ni	•	******	****	*****
-khoi-nā phū-ga-ni		*****	*****	*** ***
nā phū-ga-ni .			****	•••••
·bu phū-i		•·····································	******	•••••
-bu phù-rē		*****	****	*****
bu phù-ga-ni .	•	*** ***		******
chat-li		Nga sato	Nga sa-jo	Ngā kā-sē.
ang chat-li		Nang sanūo	Nang sa-jo	Nangna ka-se.
ā chat-li	•	I sangado	He sa-jo	Meda kā-se.
i-khoi chat-li	•	Niyo sado	*****	Ngī a kā-sē.
a-khoi chat-li .		Nang-ga sado		Nū da ka-se.
a-khoi chat-li .		Tik-ga sado . , .	*****	Muk da ka-se.
		Nga sango	Nga sango	Nga ka khānē:
	bu phū-i bu phū-rē bu phū-rē bu phū-ga-ni chat-li ung chat-li chat-li -khoi chat-li a-khoi chat-li	bu phū-i	bu phū-rē	bu phū-rē

English.	Meirhei (Manipur).	Andro (McCulloch).	Song mai (McCulli ch),	Chairel (McCulloch),				
212. Thou wentest	Nang chat-le	,						
213. He went	Mā chat-lē			101				
214. We went	Ai-khoi chat-lē							
215. You went	Na-khoi chat-lē	••••						
216. They went	Ma-khoi chat-lē	*****		*				
217. Go	Chat-lu	Nang sa-taië Sa-ture		Nang a-ka-de.				
218. Going	Chat-tu-nā	oetro.		*** 144				
219. Gone	Chat-khi-du-nā	*****		*** ***				
220. What is your name?	Nang-gi na-ming ka-ri kan- ba-gë ?	******		43 ***				
221. How old is this horse?	Sa gol a si chahi ka-yā su- ra-ba-gē ?	******		******				
222. How far is it from here to Kashmir?	A-si-da-gi Kashmir phāu- bā a-si ka-yā thūp-pa-gē?	*****		100 550				
23. How many sous are there in your father's house?	Na-pā-gi yum-dā ma-chā ni-pā ka-yā lai-ba-gē ?	*** ***		******				
24. I have walked a long way to-day.	Ai nga-si yām-nā chat-lē (or chat-lu-rē).	*** ***		*****				
<ol> <li>The son of my uncle is married to his sister.</li> </ol>	Ai-gi khurā-gi ma-chā ni- pā-nā mā-gi ma-chan lau-i.	196 700	*****	091 FOR				
26. In the house is the sad- dle of the white horse.	Sa-gol a-ngau-ba-gi säban- di yumung-dā lai.	*****	••.	375 666				
27. Put the saddle upon his back.	Ma-namgan-dā sābal hāp- kat-lu.	*****	******	******				
28. I have beaten his son with many stripes.	Ai-nā mā-gi ma-chā ni-pā- bu sa-jai-nā yām-nā phū- rē.	•••		*** ***				
29. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.	Mā ching ma-ton-dā san sēl-li.	189 000	******	dto ppo				
30. He is sitting on a horse under that tree.	Mā ū a-du-gi ma-khā-dā sa-gon tong-du-nā lai.	81 098	*****	*****				
31. His brother is taller than his sister.	Mā-gi ma-chan-bu-di ma- nāc-nā hēn-nā wāng-i.	000 ton	•••••	v1+484				
32. The price of that is two rupees and a half.	Mā-du-gi ma-man-dī rūpā a-ni ma-khai-ni.	***		280 00 0 2,				
33. My father lives in that small house.	Yum apisak a-du-dā i-pā lai.	, gua 444		405***				
34. Give this rupee to him	Rūpā a-si ma-ngondā pi-yu	******	981.004	•••••				
35. Take those rupees from him.	Rūpā a-du ma-ngonda-gi lau.	baaneb	1001000	493020				

English.	Meithei (Manipur).	Andro (McCulloch).	Sengmai (McCulloch).	Chairel (McCulloch).
236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes.	Mā-bu kan-nā phū-du-nā thauri-nā pūl-u.			
237. Draw water from the well.	Kuhā-da-gi ising sokat-lu .			
238. Walk before me .	I-māng-dā chat-lu			••····
239. Whose boy comes behind you?	Na-tung-dā ka-nā-gi ni-pā ma-chā lāk-pa-gē ?			
240. From whom did you buy that?	Nang ma-du ka-nā-da-gi lei-ru-ba-gē?	<b></b>		
241. From a shopkcoper of the village.	Khul a-si-gi dukāl-gi mi a-ma-da-gi.			······

K.-C. G.-54

### CHIN GROUPS.

#### INTRODUCTION.

The word Chin is generally used to denote the various tribes inhabiting the country to the east of the Lushai Hills, from Manipur in the north to about the eighteenth degree of north latitude in the south. On the east their country is bounded by Burma. All these tribes are believed to have come originally from the north. But in later times they have apparently been moving towards that direction, and some of the tribes have within the memory of man been pushed from the Northern Chin Hills into Manipur and Cachar. They do not themselves recognise the name Chin, but call themselves Yo or Zo in the north, I ai in the centre, and Shö in the south, besides many other tribal names. The word Chin is supposed by some authorities to be a corruption of the Chinese jen, a man. 1 It is used by the Burmese to denote all hills tribes, and is thus also applied to the Kachins. Shendu is another name used to denote different tribes in the Chin Hills, especially those along the Arakan and Chittagong frontier. Major Shakespear remarks that 'every one uses the term in a different sense, and it is not the name used by any tribe, but purely a bazar name.' It is supposed to be an Arakan appellation. name Poi, which also occurs in many authorities, is the Lushei denomination of tribes who wear their hair in a knot upon the top of the head. It is thus similar to the Burmese 'Baungshe', from paung, to put on, and she, in front, applied to all the Chins who wear their hair in a knot over the forehead.

The Chins have only come under British influence in the last few years. Since the beginning of the last century they made numerous raids into our territory. Soon after Upper Burma had become a British province, it proved necessary to take steps to protect the new territory against incursions from the Chin Hills, and in 1898 an expedition was sent against the Siyins. In the season 1889-90 other columns entered the hills, from Fort White and from the Myittha valley. Haka was occupied in February 1890. A permanent post was established and a political officer stationed there. The hills were administered from Haka and Fort White, under the names of the Northern and Southern Chin Hills, respectively, up to 1892, when they were formed into one charge with headquarters at Falam. The Siyins and Soktes revolted in October 1892, but were subdued, and a regular house tax was then introduced. There has been no trouble in the Northern Chin Hills, since a final rising of the Siyins was suppressed in the season 1893-94. In 1894 all the southern tribes were disarmed. 'In all nearly 7,000 guns were taken from the tribes north and south between the years 1893 and 1896, and since this the hills have not only enjoyed peace, but there has been an almost total absence of serious crime. The growth of trade and intercourse between the Chins and the people of the plains was rapid, and considerable numbers of Chins settled in the Kale valley. The garrison of the Chin Hills was taken over by Military Police in 1895 and 1896, with a consequent great reduction in expenditure, and trade with the hills is steadily increasing.' Messrs, Scott and Hardiman, from whose Gazetteer of Upper Burma most of the preceding statements have been taken, describe the present condition of the hills as follows:—

'Now not only are the plains undisturbed, but the hills themselves are quite peaceful. Raids are unknown, and scarcely any crimes are committed, so that the Chin Hills are actually more secure than many parts of

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The word Chin is perhaps related to names such as China, Ching-på, Shan, Siam, etc., all common within the various branches of the Indo-Chinese family.

Lower Burma. Roads, on which Chin coolies now readily work, have been constructed in all directions; the rivers have been bridged; the people have taken up the cultivation of English vegetables, and the indigenous industries have been largely developed; British officers now tour about with escorts of only four or five men in places where formerly they could only go with columns. Burmese pedlars wander unmolested all over the hills, and the Chins themselves not only visit but settle in the plains. The relations with Manipur, the Lushai Hills, and Arakan are equally unrestricted. The completion of the Falam-Indin road will still more open up communication and cheapen goods. A settlement of Gurkhas in the valley of Laiyo, five miles from Falam, suggests great developments, though similar colonies at Haka and Fort White were not so prosperous. Altogether the reduction of the Chins to order is as great a matter of congratulation as the pacification of the Kachins and the peaceable development of the Shan States.'

The southernmost Chins, such as the Chinboks, the Chinbons, and the Chinmes, are administered from Yawdwin, the Khyengs belong chiefly to the Arakan Hill Tracts, and the Deputy Commissioners of Minbu, Thayetmyo, Kyaukpyu, and Sandoway all have dealings with Chins residing within their districts. The chief tribes administered from Falam are the Soktes, Siyins, Tashons, Hakas, Tlantlangs or Klangklangs and Yokwas. In the south there are several independent villages which do not belong to the main tribes, each with their own chief. The numbers of these tribes are estimated as follows by Messrs. Carey and Tuck:—

	•						_							9,005
Sokte	•	•	•	•	•	. •	•			•				1,770
Siyin	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	. •	•	•				39,215
Tashon	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		14,250
Haka	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	4,925
Tlantlang	3	•	•	•	•	•	.•	•	•	•	•	,	•	2,675
Yokwa			•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	
Independ	lent s	souther	m vil	ages	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	17,780
		•									$\mathbf{T}_{0}$	TAL		89,620

Nothing is known about the early history of these tribes. They are now rapidly becoming Burmanised. A full account of their customs and manners is given by Messrs. Carey and Tuck, and after them in the Gazetteer of Upper Burma. The remarks which follow have been taken from the latter work:—

'The chief Kuki and Chin characteristics are said to be slow speech, serious manner, respect for birth and pride of podigree, the duty of revenge, love of drink, virtue of hospitality, clan prejudices, avarice, distrust, impatience of control, and dirt. The average Chin is taller than most of his neighbours, about five feet six inches in height, but men only an inch or two under six feet are not uncommon. Some of them measure sixteen inches round the calf. The finest built men are the Siyins, Hakas, and the Southern tribesmen.

'They carry loads in baskets on the back, with a yoke which fits on the neck and a band which passes round the forehead. In this way they can carry 180h loads for twelve miles over a hilly country. The Whenos and Yahaos grow beards, but otherwise the Chins are hairless, though in the south elderly men cultivate a scanty moustache and goatee. All the tribes are uncleanly in their persons. All have a character for treachery. The Hakas are least unattractive in appearance and habits, the Siyins most so.

'The Siyins, Soktes, Thados, Yos, and Whenos wear the hair in a knot on the nape of the neck; the Tashons, Yahaos, Hakas, and the southerners generally tie it up on the top of the head, whence the name Baungshe, because it is usually just over the forehead. The hair-pins, like those of the southern tribes, are heavy, and are formidable enough to be deadly weapons in a sudden quarrel. The Chins are rapidly adopting Barmese forms of dress. When the hills were first occupied some wore a rough white cotton blanket or mantle only, some a loin cloth in addition. In the fields they worked mother-naked . . . . The women were a skirt wound once and a half round the body and hitched in like the Burmese woman's petticeat . . . . The villages used always to be placed in strong defensible positions, on peaks or steep ridges. Artificial means were adopted to make them difficult of access, and ramparts, rifle pits, thorny hedges, and spikes were added. The houses were often built over platforms cut out of the side of the hill. Water was often led in by bamboos or wooden trough aqueducts . . . . The houses were built of planking with thatched roofs and stood on piles . . . . In the front verandah are hung or stacked up the trophies of the chase acquired by the householder or his ancestors. Human skulls are never brought inside the village. They are mounted on posts outside.

'Like the Ws, the Hakas, Shunklas, and other southern tribes bury those of the family who have died a natural death, in the yard in the front of the house. The Sivins and Soktes never bury their dead inside the village.

'All the Chin women smoke perpetually, partly for the sake of the smoke, but chiefly to supply the men with nicotine . . . The nicotine is not drunk. The men keep it in their mouths for a time and then spit it out . . . Chin liquor, yu or zu, is most commonly made from millet, but also from Indian-corn and from rice . . . Marriage is a mere matter of purchase. In the north the capacity of a girl as a field-labourer, in the south her pedigree (in addition to this) are the chief points . . . Unlike the Chinboks and Yindus, the Chins bury and do not burn their dead. Great importance, however is attached to the remains being buried in or near the ancestral village. The Hakas and southerners, Tashons and their tributaries bury inside the village in deep receptacles branching off at right angles. The Siyins, Soktes and Thados bury outside the village always and the corpse is usually dried for a year before burial . . .

'The Chin religion is a belief in spirits, all malignant. The northerners disbelieve in a supreme being; the southerners accept such a deity and call him Kozin. He is indifferent and may become malignant; at any rate he is not beneficent. Spirits preside over the usual places, the village, house, clan, family, individual, the flood, the fell, the air, the trees. They are not merely unwilling to bestow blessings, but incapable of doing so. The Hakas believe in another world called Mi-thi-kwa (dead-man's village) . . . The belief prevalent among many savage races, that the slain becomes the slave of the slayer, is held in many parts of the Chin Hills. The Siyins not only deny the existence of a supreme deity, but also of another world, though they believe in a future existence when there will be drinking and hunting. As to fighting and raiding they are uncertain. The names of spirits vary greatly . . . Different spirits require different sacrifices. It is useless to sacrifice a pig or a cock to a spirit who requires a mythun. There is a wise man or wise woman who understands spirits in every village. Throughout the hills there are various sacred spirit groves. Omens, witchcraft, and the evil eye are believed in.

'The Chins cultivate grain, pulses, roots, and vegetables . . . The only articles manufactured for export are cane and bamboo mats and baskets. Spears, dhas, axe-heads, hoes, and knives are manufactured locally.'

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It has been noted above (on p. 1) that the word Chin has the same meaning as the name Kuki. It has also been pointed out (above pp. 8 and ff.) that the denomination Chin will, in these pages, be used in such a way as to comprise all the tribes which are variously known as the Chins and the Kukis. Using the word in this broad sense the Chin languages must be sub-divided in four groups,—

- 1. Northern Chin.
- 2. Central Chin.

- 3. Old Kuki.
- 4. Southern Chin.

### NORTHERN-CHIN SUB-GROUP.

This sub-group comprises the following dialects :-

						Tota	l, at le	ast		60,345
,,	"	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	?
Paitē	**	•	•	•	•	•	٠	•	•	18,133
Ralte	"	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		1,770
Siyin	"	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	9,005
Thado, including Jangshen, spoken Soktë	by	•	•	•	•	•	•			31,437
777 - 1 1 1 1		_								

Rāltē and Paitē form the link connecting this sub-group with the Central Chin languages.

#### THĀDO.

The Thado tribe formerly lived in the Lushai and Chin Hills where they had established themselves after having expelled the Rangkhöl and Bete tribes. They were afterwards expelled both from the Chin Hills and the Lushai Hills, and are now chiefly settled in Manipur, in the Naga Hills, and in South Cachar. The Lushai Chief Lallula began, about the year 1810, to move northwards, and the Thados were gradually expelled from the Lushai Hills, and settled down in Cachar somewhere between 1840 and 1850. About the same time the Thados of the Chin Hills were conquered by the Soktes under their chief Kantum, and were driven towards the north into Manipur, where they settled down in the hills to the south. There are now only six Thado villages left in the Chin Thado is the name of their original progenitor, but it is also used by the Chins to denote the tribe itself. In Assam and Bengal they are known as Kukis, a name which also comprises other tribes such as the Rangkhöls, Hallams, Betes, etc. The Thados and their co-tribes are usually spoken of as new Kukis, owing to the fact that they came from the Lushai Hills at a later date than the other hill tribes, the so-called old Kukis. Manipur they are called Khongzais, and they use this name themselves in conversation with Manipuris, whom they call Mei-lei.

Several sub-tribes trace their origin back to Thādo and his brothers. McCulloch states that the principal clans are the Thādos proper, Shingsol, Chongloi, Hangseen, Keepgen, and Hankoop, from which have sprung several sub-clans of smaller importance. Mr. Damant mentions four principal tribes, Thādo and Shingsol, Changsen and Khlāngam, while Mr. Soppitt speaks of 'Jansēn' as the principal tribe and 'Tadoi' as a co-tribe. Kotang, Shīk-Shinshum, Rāltē, and Sēri are, according to him, different offshoots of these tribes. Other sources give the names Katlang and Sairang, and the different hill tribes use several other names to denote the Thādos. It is, however, of little use to make all these divisions and sub-divisions. They have nothing to do with the language. All these tribes, with the exception of Rāltē, speak the same language, and the dialectical differences are only slight. The language itself is, according to Messrs. Stewart and Damant, called *Thādo-pao*, Thādo language.

The Thades maintain that they have come out from the bowels of the earth. They explain the origin of the different tribes by the legend that the grandsons of their first king were told to catch a rat, but were struck with a confusion of tongues. In this way they also try to bring themselves in connection with the Meitheis and other surrounding tribes. They state that they have come from the north, and this tradition probably contains a remembrance of old wanderings, from the times before they settled down in the

Lushai and Chin hills. The different tribes are now said to be mixed together in many of their villages.

Major McCulloch gives the following description of these tribes :-

'The Kookies are a short sturdy race of men with a goodly development of muscle. Their legs are, generally speaking, short in comparison to the length of their bodies, and their arms long. Their complexion differs little from that of the Bengalee and comprises various shades, but the features are most markedly dissimilar; the face is nearly as broad as long, and is generally round or square, the cheek bones high, broad, and prominent, eyes small and almond-shaped, and the nose short and flat with wide nostrils. The women appear more squat than the men even, but are strong and lusty, and quite as industrious and indefatigable as the Naga. women, working hard all day either at home or in the fields, and accustomed to carry heavy loads. The men, like the Nagas, are inclined to be lazy, though not to such an extent as that tribe. They love to sit on high platforms raised for the purpose in their villages, and pass the day in conversation and smoking. Men, women, and children all smoke to the greatest excess. A Kookie is hardly ever seen without a pipe in his mouth, and one of his few means of calculating time and distance is by the number of pipes he smokes. The men smoke a pipe, the bowl of which is either made of brass, rudely ornamented, or of the end of a small bamboo tube. a reed (it is like a reed but is a bamboo) being let in near the knot as a mouth-piece. The women have a bowl with water in it attached to their pipes, and the smoke in passing through impregnates the water with its fumes. This fumigated water is filled into little bamboo tubes, and other reservoirs in which it is carried about by the men who occasionally sip of it, retaining it in the mouth for some time before spitting it out again, and on meeting a friend, hand it to him as a mark of courtesy. They also chew tobacco in great quantities. They are filthy in person to an inconceivable degree. A cloth round the waist in the fashion of the Koupocess is worn by individuals, but generally this is dispensed with, and the only covering of the body is a coarse sheet in the disposing of which for the concealment of the person they are adepts. They all wear head dresses or turbans of cotton cloth or silk, in the folding of which they are very expert. The women wrap a scanty strip of cloth round their persons sufficient to prevent them from being called naked; over their shoulders they throw a sheet. or, if young, wrap it round their bodies under the arm-pits. They have no head dress but a luxuriant crop of not coarse hair which is parted in the middle and plaited at the sides, the plaits being passed round the back of the head and tied in front over the forehead.'

The Thados are a migratory race, and do not occupy their villages for more than two or three years at a time, when they move on to a new place, more fit for cultivation. The staple food is rice, and it is produced through the ordinary *jhum* cultivation. They prefer woody spots, on the tops of the hills, for their villages. Their houses are small, and built on raised platforms, and generally face one another, with a broad path running down the centre. They are governed by hereditary chiefs, who formerly had a considerable degree of power. They pay great attention to their genealogy, and trace themselves back to the first chief who came out from the bowels of the earth.

Most of these tribes believe in a supreme god, generally called *Pathien*, but there are, besides, numerous spirits which must always be propitiated. The dead are usually buried. The bodies of the deceased chiefs are, however, placed on a raised platform and left there to decompose, or dried over a slow fire until the flesh gets smoked and hardened to the bone. After some time the remains are then buried.

The Thados buy their wives, and the price may be paid in money or through personal bondage for two or three years.

They attach great importance to the comb and always wear it entwined in the hair. They are very particular as to who is entitled to use their comb. McCulloch is inclined to think that this may be due to the attention they pay to their genealogy.

There is no written literature, but they have still old songs in a language which they no longer understand. The priests have developed a technical language of their own, unintelligible to the rest of the people.

It is almost impossible to make an exact statement with regard to the number of

THADO. 61

speakers of these dialects, because they often, in the local returns, have been included in the general term Kuki. What we know is as follows:—

In the Manipur State the Khongzāis are settled throughout the length and breadth of the hill country and also in the Yongba Langkhong village in the valley. They are most numerous in the south-west and north-west. Their total number is estimated at 20,000.

In the Nága Hills they are known as the Langtung colony. They are returned as Kukis and are said to number 5,500. They speak the Thādo language.

In North Cachar there is said to be some speakers of Jangshen, but no particulars are given.

Dialects of Thado are spoken in the Cachar Plains. Most of them are here known as Sairang. They are settled in the east of the district, and their number is said to be 5,270. Saimar is spoken by a few individuals who have come down from the Cachar Hills to the south and east of the Sadr Sub-division in the Plains since the Census of 1891. The Deputy Commissioner gives the total for Ralte, Langrong, and Saimar as 399, without saying how many speakers there are of each. We may provisionally put down 133 for Saimar.

One thousand and six hundred individuals in Sylhet are reported as speaking Standard Kuki. Only a few words, translated in different parts of the district, have been received. They seem to belong to the Langrong and Hallām dialects with the exception of some words taken down at the Sagarnal Punji, which apparently are Thādo. I have provisionally put down 534 as speakers of that latter language.

The total of speakers of Thado dialects may, therefore, provisionally be put down as follows:—

Manipur .	•	1	•	•			•		•	•	•	•		20,000
Naga Hills	•	,	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		5,500
North Cacha	r,	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	9
Cachar Plair	18 .	,	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	5,403
Sylhet .	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	٠	•	•	534
											Тот	AL.		31,437

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Two specimens and a list of standard words and phrases have been received from the Yongba Langkhong village in the Manipur valley. They have been prepared by Babu Another list has been received from the Nága Hills. It is very Bisharup Singh. incorrect. I have corrected all obvious mistakes, and, in many places, added within parentheses, the corresponding words from Mr. Butler's vocabulary, quoted among authorities. A third list has been taken down in the Cachar Plains. It is incomplete. and the Deputy Commissioner states that it has proved impossible to get anything more. I have, in another column, entered the corresponding words from Sir George Campbell's list. I have corrected the misprints in this latter list so far as I have been able to do so. These texts represent, in all essential points, the same language. The Manipur specimens are in some points influenced by Meithei, but in all essential points they agree with the other specimens. The same is the case with the published vocabularies of other Thado dialects, and we are fully justified in speaking of one Thado language. Stewart has published a short grammar of the language, which, together with the forms occurring in the specimens, is the foundation of the following remarks on Thado grammar.

Pronunciation.—There is great inconsistency in the marking of long vowels. Thus, we find khāt and khat, one; nā and na, thy, etc. U is always marked as long in the Manipur specimens, etc. A vowel is sometimes doubled, probably in order to denote a long pronunciation. Thus, tāam and tām, cut; ghuup and gūp, six; kēel and kēl, goat. In words such as nēyaū and nēu, small, we may infer that each vowel is pronounced separately. It is often difficult to state what vowel is uttered in each case, there being considerable inconsistency in the spelling. A is apparently written for o or ā in many words in Sir George Campbell's list. Thus, nang-ha, you, where all other texts have nang-

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ho, etc. A and  $\bar{u}$  are interchanged in the specimens from Manipur; thus, am, and  $\bar{u}m$ , to be;  $\bar{a}$  and  $\bar{e}$ , in  $kis\bar{a}n$  and  $kis\bar{e}n$ , even.  $\bar{U}$  and o are often interchangeable; thus,  $kh\bar{u}t$  and khot, hand;  $h\bar{u}ng$  and hong, to come. In the same way  $\bar{e}$  and i are often interchanged; thus,  $h\bar{e}ng\bar{a}$  and  $hing\bar{a}$ , to;  $\bar{e}n$  and in, suffix of the adverbial participle. The writing of the diphthongs is inconsistent. Thus, we find kai and, more correctly, kei, I; ngai and  $ng\bar{e}i$ , suffix of the plural;  $s\bar{a}i$ ,  $s\bar{e}i$ , and  $s\bar{e}$ , say;  $ch\bar{e}i$  and  $ch\bar{e}$ , go; hai,  $h\bar{e}$ ,  $h\bar{a}$ , and hi, to be; niang for  $n\bar{e}n$ , eat, etc.  $O\bar{u}$  and  $\bar{u}o$  are sometimes apparently written instead of a or a; thus  $so\bar{u}k$  and soh, slave;  $p\bar{u}on$ , carrying; po-tan, carry, etc.

It seems as if the pronunciation were, in many cases, indistinct, especially in prefixes. Thus, the pronominal prefix of the first person occurs in the forms ka,  $k\bar{a}$ ,  $k\bar{e}$ , and  $k\bar{u}$ ; the prefix of the second person as na,  $n\bar{a}$ , and ni, etc.

Concurrent vowels are often contracted. Thus,  $a\text{-}p\bar{a}n$ , for  $a\text{-}p\bar{a}\text{-}in$ , his-father-by;  $p\bar{e}n$  for  $p\bar{e}\text{-}in$ , give; lon, for lo-in, take;  $ih\bar{a}m$  for  $i\text{-}hi\text{-}\bar{a}m$ , what?  $i\text{-}ch\bar{a}n$   $l\bar{a}m$ , for  $ich\bar{a}n$   $l\bar{a}-\bar{a}m$ , how far, etc. The hiatus, however, often remains, or is removed by inserting a euphonic consonant. Such are y, j, and v, often written b. Thus, kei-jin, I; hi-jam, what?  $kai\text{-}y\bar{a}$ , mine;  $nang\text{-}\bar{u}\text{-}b\bar{a}$ , that is  $nang\text{-}ho\text{-}v\text{-}\bar{a}$ , thine, etc. J as a euphonic consonant does not occur in the Manipur texts. It is pronounced z, and in the Naga Hills list we even find nang-zhein, of thee. An apparently euphonic m is sometimes inserted after p; thus,  $a\text{-}chop\text{-}m\bar{e}$ , he kissed. Before an n a preceding t is usually dropped, as in  $kha\text{-}n\bar{a}$ , one-to, from khat, one;  $a\text{-}kho\text{-}n\bar{a}$ , his-hand-on, from khot, hand.

Final consonants are occasionally silent; compare p. 4 above. Thus,  $m\bar{u}$  and  $m\bar{u}k$ , see;  $ch\bar{o}k$  and cho, buy. An ng is sometimes added, apparently in order to denote a faint nasal sound. Thus,  $ch\bar{a}$ -nung and  $ch\bar{a}$ -n $\bar{u}$ , daughter; tu-ni, tu-nin, and tu-ning, to-day;  $n\bar{u}k$ -chang and  $n\bar{u}ng$ - $\bar{a}$ , behind, etc. Ng is interchangeable with n; thus, hing, being;  $p\bar{u}on$ , carrying: niang, eat;  $p\bar{e}n$ , give, etc. In a-man-fet-le, having-been-lost, n is written for ng.

Hard and soft consonants are not interchanged. A-dūng-tūn-ā, his-back-on, in No. 227 of the Manipur list, is probably due to Meithei influence. Compare  $t\bar{u}ng-t\bar{u}n$  back. Aspirates are often written instead of unaspirated letters, especially in the Cachar list; thus ghup for  $g\bar{u}p$ , six; thang and  $t\bar{u}ng$ , a suffix of the imperative. The Aryan-speaking inhabitants of Cachar, as a rule, are quite unable to pronounce an aspirated letter (though they often write it).

An h is written after most final vowels in the same list. It perhaps denotes the short, abrupt tone.

W and b are sometimes interchanged; thus, wato and bahto, duck; wanghin and banghing, on account of. W is probably the sound intended. Compare wi and ui, dog; woi and oëi, belly.

R and l are sometimes interchanged; thus, sakor and sakol, horse; chilhāt and serhāt, cow. This last word occurs as sherāk in the Cachar list.

J is probably pronounced z or, perhaps, as in the French word jour. It is interchangeable with y, the latter sound being common in the Manipur texts, the former in the lists from Cachar and the Naga Hills. Thus, Khongzāi  $i-j\bar{a}$ , Sairang  $i-j\bar{a}$ , Naga Hills dialect  $i-zh\bar{a}t$ , how many. G apparently sometimes takes the place of j; thus, gom and gom, to join; gom and gom in the Sairang list.

Lh in the Manipur and Naga Hills lists corresponds to fl in Sairang in  $lh\bar{a}$  and  $fl\bar{a}$ , moon;  $lh\bar{a}i$  and  $fl\bar{a}$ , run. It is perhaps miswriting for tl. Sir George Campbell has  $thl\bar{a}$ , moon, and kla, run.

S and t seem to interchange in  $s\bar{a}n$  or  $s\bar{a}an$  and  $t\bar{a}n$ , cut, in the second specimen. S is probably wrong. Ch is sometimes written for s; thus,  $m\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{a}ng$ - $\bar{a}$  and  $m\bar{a}$ -chang- $\bar{a}$ , before, etc.

We have no information with regard to tones and accentuation.

Articles.—There are no articles. The numeral *khat*, one, is used as an Indefinite article and definiteness is expressed by means of pronominal prefixes, demonstrative pronouns, and relative clauses.

**Nouns.**—The prefixes ka, na, and a, which precede many nouns, are usually the possessive pronouns; thus, ka- $p\bar{a}$ , my-father; na- $p\bar{a}$ , thy-father; a- $p\bar{a}$ , his-father, all used as translations of 'a father.' The prefix a is sometimes used in a wider sense; thus, a- $l\bar{a}m$ , dance, a- $f\bar{a}$ , good, etc. The prefix ka is also used in a similar way; thus, ka-ti- $l\bar{e}$ , saying. The suffix pi is often added to great things, and  $ch\bar{a}$  to small ones. Both are originally adjectives, but seem to have lost their full meaning. Thus, sai-pi, an elephant, va- $ch\bar{a}$ , a bird;  $m\bar{e}ng$ - $ch\bar{a}$ , a cat.

Gender is only apparent in the case of animate beings. The gender of human beings is indicated by means of separate words or suffixes. Thus,  $p\bar{a}$ , father;  $n\bar{u}$ , mother: pasal, man;  $n\bar{u}$ -mai, woman. The usual suffixes are, in the case of human beings,  $p\bar{a}$ , male, and  $n\bar{u}$ , female; and, in the case of animals, chal, or a-chal, male;  $n\bar{u}$  or a- $n\bar{u}$ , female. Thus,  $\bar{u}$ - $p\bar{a}$ , elder brother;  $\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{u}$ , elder sister; sakol a-chal, horse; sa-kol a- $n\bar{u}$ , mare. The Cachar list also contains a female suffix pi (piu in the Naga Hills list) used of animals. Thus,  $\bar{u}i$   $ch\bar{a}l$ , dog;  $\bar{u}i$  pi, bitch.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. When it is necessary to mark the plural, suffixes such as ho and  $t\bar{e}$  are added. Thus,  $a\text{-}so\bar{u}k\text{-}ho$ , his servants;  $ka\text{-}p\bar{a}\text{-}t\bar{e}\text{-}ho$ , my-fathers. Ngai or ngēi, many, and tam-pi, many, are used in the same way; thus,  $k\bar{a}\text{-}p\bar{a}$  ngēi, my-father many, fathers, in the Cachar list;  $ka\text{-}p\bar{a}$  tam-pi, fathers in the Manipur list.

Case.—The Nominative and the Accusative do not take any suffix. The suffix in, by, is usually added to the subject of a transitive verb; thus, a- $p\bar{a}n$  a- $so\bar{u}k$ -ho  $h\bar{e}ng\bar{a}$  a- $s\bar{e}$ - $y\bar{e}$ , his-father his-servants to he said. The Genitive is indicated by putting the governed before the governing noun; thus, ka- $p\bar{a}$   $so\bar{u}k$ , my father's servants. The governed noun may be repeated by means of a possessive pronoun; thus, ka- $p\bar{a}ng\bar{a}$  a- $ch\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$ , my uncle his-son, the son of my uncle. Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are :— $\bar{a}$ , in, to;  $h\bar{e}ng$  and  $h\bar{e}ng\bar{a}$ , to, from; in, in, at, by means of;  $kh\bar{u}$ , to;  $l\bar{e}$ , with;  $m\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{a}ng\bar{a}$ , before;  $n\bar{u}ng\bar{a}$ , behind;  $s\bar{u}ng\bar{a}$ , in, etc.

Adjectives.—Adjectives are usually preceded by the prefix a. The suffixes  $p\hat{a}$  and  $t\bar{a}$  are sometimes added. Adjectives usually follow, but occasionally also precede the noun they qualify. Thus,  $sakol\ a-k\bar{a}ng$ , horse white;  $a-ch\bar{a}-p\bar{a}\ a-lh\bar{u}m-p\bar{a}$ , his-son younger;  $a-fa-t\bar{a}$  pasal, a good man. Pi or  $p\bar{e}$  and  $ch\bar{a}$  are added, in the same way as they are added to nouns, in order to convey the idea of greatness or smallness, respectively. Thus,  $a-l\bar{u}n-pi$ , very great;  $n\bar{e}ya\bar{u}-ch\bar{a}$  and  $neu-ch\bar{a}$ , very small, small.

The particle of comparison is  $s\bar{a}ng$ , usually followed by the postpositions  $\bar{a}$  or in; thus, a-ni  $s\bar{a}ng$ - $\bar{a}$   $\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{a}ng$ - $\bar{e}$ , two among he tall;  $\bar{a}$ -supi- $n\bar{u}$   $s\bar{a}ng$ -in (or  $s\bar{a}ngnin$ )  $\bar{a}$ -supi- $p\bar{a}$   $\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{a}ng$ - $\bar{e}$ , his-sister than his-brother he tall is; tam-pi  $s\bar{a}ng$ - $\bar{a}$  a- $s\bar{a}ng$ - $\bar{e}$ , many among hetall-is, tallest. Nehki, that is  $n\bar{e}k$ -in, is once used instead of  $s\bar{a}ng$ -in in the Sairang list; thus,  $\bar{u}$ - $m\bar{u}$  nehki  $\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{a}ng$ - $\bar{e}$ , him than he-tall-is. Yo is added to the adjective in a-ni

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sāngā faiyo, better, in the Manipur list. Compare Siyin  $z\hat{a}$ . In the Sairang list dhom is sometimes added in the comparative, and  $p\bar{e}n$  in the superlative; thus,  $\bar{a}$ -phā-dhom- $\bar{e}$ , better;  $\bar{a}$ -phā-pēn- $\bar{e}$ , best. Stewart gives  $d\bar{e}$  and  $p\bar{e}n$ . All these additions mean 'much,' more.' The same is the case with  $t\bar{a}k$  in  $p\bar{v}$  on a-fa- $t\bar{a}k$ , the best cloth.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the lists of words. They follow the word they qualify. A in a-ni, two, and i in illi, four, are probably generic prefixes. Another prefix of this kind is  $ch\bar{e}ng$ , used with reference to money; thus,  $ch\bar{u}$ - $ch\bar{e}$  man  $ch\bar{e}ng$ -ni ma-khai, that-of price two a-half. In  $k\bar{e}l$ - $ch\bar{a}$   $n\bar{u}$  cha-khat, goat-young female one, cha is prefixed to the numeral. It seems to be identical with  $ch\bar{a}$  in  $k\bar{e}l$ - $ch\bar{a}$ , and to denote small animals.

**Pronouns.**—The following are the *Personal Pronouns*:—Singular,—

kei-mā, kei, I, my.nang-mã, nang, thou, thy.a-mã, he, she, it.ka, my.na, thy. $\alpha$ , his, her, its.kei-ā, mine.nang-ā, thine.a-mã-ã, his, hers, its.

Plural,-

kei-ho, we. nang-ho, you. a-mā-ho, they.

The lists of words contain several mistakes, and also some forms which are probably correct. Thus,  $\bar{a}h$ - $m\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$ , his, in the Sairang list. The pronouns are inflected like nouns by means of postpositions. Thus, kein and kei-jin, by me; nang-zhein, of thee, in the Naga Hills list, probably for nang-in; kei  $th\bar{u}$ , my word, of me; nang na- $s\bar{u}m$ , thou thy-property, thy property, etc. Ei or  $\bar{e}$  is sometimes added to the pronoun of the first person, in the dative and the accusative; thus, hi- $p\bar{a}n$  kei- $\bar{e}i$   $d\bar{e}ng$ - $\bar{e}$ , he strikes me; kei- $m\bar{a}$ - $\bar{e}$   $w\bar{e}$ , me-concerning striking, I am struck, etc. This form occurs, in the lists, only in the translation of the passive, but it is, according to Stewart, in common use.

The Demonstrative pronouns are hi, this;  $h\bar{u}$  and  $ch\bar{u}$ , that. Cha and  $ch\bar{e}$  are often added; thus,  $h\bar{u}i\text{-}chu$ , i.e.,  $h\bar{u}\text{-}cha$ , that;  $ch\bar{u}\text{-}ch\bar{e}$ , that.  $Hi\text{-}ch\bar{e}$  and  $hi\text{-}ch\bar{e}\text{-}p\bar{a}$  are also used as a personal pronoun of the third person. Hi-hi,  $h\bar{u}$ ,  $hi\text{-}ch\bar{u}$ ,  $h\bar{u}\text{-}h\bar{u}$ , and  $h\bar{u}\text{-}ch\bar{u}$ , are, according to Stewart, used in the same way.  $A\text{-}m\bar{a}$  is, on the other hand, used as a demonstrative pronoun.

There are no Relative pronouns. The root alone, without any suffix, is used as a relative participle. Thus,  $la\bar{u}$   $lh\bar{u}$  mi, field cultivating man, a cultivator;  $y\bar{a}m$  ching mi, sheep-tending man, a shepherd; kei- $y\bar{u}$  am  $ya\bar{u}s\bar{e}$  nang- $\bar{a}$  a- $h\bar{e}$ , mine being all thine is. The demonstrative pronouns are often used as a correlative; thus, kei chan-ding  $s\bar{e}l$ -a- $s\bar{u}m$  a- $m\bar{a}$   $p\bar{e}n$ , I getting property that give. Chan-ding is a verbal noun, consisting of chan, to get, and the postposition ding, for. It is used as a relative participle just in the same way as the forms am, etc., in the instances just quoted.

Other verbal forms may be used in the same way. The suffix  $t\bar{a}$ , for instance, which usually conveys the idea of completeness and therefore may be considered as a suffix of the past tenses, is also used in order to form relative participles of the past time. Thus, nang na-sūm yaūsē sū-yo-nū hēngā pēn na-chā-pān a-bon-in a-mang-sā-tā na-chā-pā hi a-hung-bamē, thy property all harlots to giving thy-son all he-wasted thy-son this he-coming. Compare the use of the suffix  $t\bar{a}$  after adjectives.

The suffix  $p\bar{a}$  is the only suffix which is peculiar to the relative participle. It is, as already stated, often added to adjectives, and it also forms nouns of agency. Thus,

 $la\bar{u}$ - $lh\bar{u}$ - $p\bar{a}$ , cultivator;  $k\bar{e}l$ -ching- $p\bar{a}$ , goat-herder,  $th\bar{u}$ - $ng\bar{e}i$ - $p\bar{a}$ , a commander. This suffix is very common in many connected languages, and it should be compared with the Tibetan article pa.

The Interrogative pronouns are koi, and ko, who? i, what? i-yā or i-jā, how many? etc. Pi, probably identical with the word added to nouns and adjectives, is sometimes suffixed to i. The interrogative particle am is usually added to the word which has the function of a verb. Thus, i-pi a-bol-am, what do-they-do? na-nūng-ā koi pasal nēyaū-chā hūng-am, thy-back-at whose man small comes? whose boy comes beaind you? sakol hi kūm i-yā ham, horse this years how-many are? Ham in the last instance is contracted from hi-am. Compare hi-yam in No. 222 of the Manipur list.

The Indefinite pronoun koi-ma-chā, anyone, is formed from the interrogative koi, who?

**Verbs.**—Verbs are conjugated in person by means of pronominal prefixes. These are ka, I and we; na, thou and you; a, he, she, it and they. The vowels of these prefixes are apparently indistinctly sounded. See remarks under the head of Pronunciation. The prefixes are often dropped before the imperative and in interrogative sentences, and apparently always in the future. The Khongzāi texts omit them also in other cases.

The root alone without any suffix is apparently used to denote present and past times. Thus,  $na-p\bar{a}$  in- $\bar{a}$  a-chā pasal i-yā  $\bar{u}m$ -am, thy father's house-in his-child male how-many are? ko hēngā na-han-choh-am, whom from thou-buy-didst? The suffix  $\bar{e}$ , also written  $\bar{e}i$  and i, is, however, usually added. Thus,  $ka-thi-d\bar{e}-d\bar{e}-\bar{e}$ , I-to-die-about-am;  $a-hai-y\bar{e}$ , they were. It is often contracted with a final vowel; thus,  $a-p\bar{e}$ , he giv  $\bar{c}$ ; a-hai, they were;  $kein\ ka-woi$ , I have struck. The suffixes  $\bar{a}$  and in are sometimes used in the same way; thus,  $a-lhom-\bar{a}$ , they-few-are;  $\bar{a}-m\bar{a}$  chin, he goes;  $s\bar{e}-in$ , (he) said. All these suffixes are probably various forms of the verb substantive.

A suffix nai is, according to Stewart, sometimes added to the root in the present and past tenses. It occurs in a few instances in Sir George Campbell's list. Thus,  $\bar{a}$ -um- $n\bar{a}e$ , he is;  $k\bar{e}$ -ha (i.e., kei-ho)  $k\bar{a}$ -um- $n\bar{a}i$ , we were. It seems to contain another verb substantive.

The common suffix of the Past tense is  $t\bar{a}$ , or  $t\bar{a}ve$ ,  $t\bar{e}$ ,  $t\bar{a}i$ , that is probably  $t\bar{a}$  plus  $\bar{e}$ . Thus, a-hom- $p\bar{e}$ - $t\bar{a}$ , he-divided-gave; a-ch $\bar{e}$ - $t\bar{a}i$ , he went. This tense is also used to denote the present time, considered as an established fact. Thus, ka- $p\bar{a}$  so $\bar{u}k$  s $\bar{u}n$ -lon a-mon $\bar{e}$  a- $n\bar{e}$ - $t\bar{a}i$ , my-father's servants hired in-plenty they-are-eating.

The verb jou (or you), to accomplish, is, according to Stewart, sometimes added in order to form an emphatic past. It seems to occur in a- $s\bar{u}m$  a-bon a-mang-yo-in, his-property all it-wasted-was-when, and in  $\bar{a}$ -hi-jou- $t\bar{a}e$ , having been.

A Present Definite and an Imperfect are formed from the participles ending in  $\bar{a}$  and in, generally with the addition of some verb meaning to be. Thus,  $a\text{-}m\bar{a}$  sakol to-in  $a\text{-}\bar{u}m\text{-}\bar{e}$ , he horse-on sitting he-is;  $\bar{a}\text{-}ch\bar{e}l\text{-}\bar{a}$ , he is grazing; kain wong-am- $t\bar{e}$ , I was striking. The suffix  $\bar{e}$  is added in  $a\text{-}m\bar{u}n$   $s\bar{e}l$  ka-ching- $\bar{e}$ , he cattle grazing-is.

The suffixes of the *Imperative* are *in* and  $t\bar{u}n$ ; the latter also written tang,  $t\bar{u}ven$ ,  $th\bar{u}ng$  and  $t\bar{u}$ . The *i* of *in* is usually dropped after a final vowel, and we are, therefore, justified in explaining the suffix  $t\bar{u}n$  as consisting of *in*, added to the suffix of the past, or rather the completed action. It adds emphasis. Thus, soom-in, bind;  $p\bar{e}n$ , give;  $ni-nai-t\bar{u}$ , thou-keep (me as thy servant);  $chi-th\bar{u}ng$  (Sairang), go;  $h\bar{u}ng-t\bar{u}n$  (Stewart), come. The suffix of the negative imperative is hi-in; thus, lhai-hi-in, don't run away; yu-kam-hi-in, don't get drunk.

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The final consonant of this suffix is as already stated, written both n and ng. In several connected languages we find that the same suffixes are often used to form the imperative and the future, and the suffix in or ing seems to be identical with the future suffixes ang in Lushëi, in in Ngentë, ing in Rühë, ëng in Köm, etc. The original meaning is probably the same as that of the suffixes ding, rang, sik. etc., viz. 'for,' 'in order to.' Compare Infinitive of purpose below. A suffix o is also used to form imperatives; thus, koy-o, put. It seems to be added to  $t\bar{a}$  in  $n\bar{e}$ - $a\bar{u}$ - $t\bar{e}$   $\bar{u}$ -a- $t\bar{e}$ , eating let us remain.

The Future is formed from the imperative and is characterised by the absence of the pronominal prefixes. The forms ending in in or ing and ton or tang are used as the base of this tense, and, besides, also a third form ending in nang, formed from the verbal noun in nā. The suflix ē is added in the first person; thus chēng-ē, I will go; sai-tāng-ē, I will say; kein wo-nāng-ē, I will strike. In the Nága Hills list we also find kē-ē vo-zhēng-ē (that is vo-z-ing-ē), me-concerning striking-will-be, I shall be struck. Tē, that is probably ti-ē, says, is added in the second and third persons, and is, in the second person, precedeā by the pronominal prefix na. Thus, nang-in wo-nāng-na-tē, thou wilt strike, lit. thee-by striking-will-be thou sayst; a-mān wo-nān-tē, he will strike. Sir George Campbell also gives kei-mā hing-kā-tē, I shall be, and from this form we must infer that tē may also be added in the first person. Compare ām-taū-tē, let us remain, ka peny-gē-tāi, I shall give; ka heng-khit-in-tē, I shall return, and the future in Hallām, p. 196 kalow.

The root alone, without any suffix, is used as an Infinitive or Verbal noun. Thus na-chā kei cham a-hai-poi, thy-son my being it-is-not (proper); kei-ho nāi-lē-nāp a-fangēlē, our merry-and-glad-being good-is. Postpositions are added to this form in order to make adverbial clauses. Thus, nang thaū ka-bol-ā, thy service my-doing-in, while I did thy service; ni thām ni li am-lē, days three days four remaining-with, after three or four days had passed; limbē a-sē-ēn, sense his-knowing-in, when he came to senses; a-gam-lā am-lā-ēn, far being-time-at, when he was still far off. Other forms of the verb are used in the same way as verbal nouns; thus, a-thi-tā-banghing, his-dying-finishing-on-account-of, because he was dead; a-mang-yo-in, it-spending-completing-in, after it had all been spent.

The suffix of the infinitive is, according to Stewart, na; thus,  $ch\bar{e}$ -na, to go. It occurs in the Manipur list in a-wo-na-ding, striking-for, to strike. This latter form is an Infinitive of purpose, formed from the verbal noun in na by adding the postposition ding, for, in order to. Ding also occurs in the form  $d\bar{e}ng$ ; thus,  $n\bar{e}$ - $d\bar{e}ng$ , in order to eat. Compare the remarks under the head of Pronunciation.

The usual way of denoting the purpose is to put the verb in the imperative and add the participle ka-ti-lē, saying. Thus, wok na-ching-in ka-ti-lē, 'pigs tend' saying, in order to tend pigs; wok an kisēn ni-ang (that is probably nēn) ka-ti-lē koi-ma-chān i-pē-poi, pigs' food even 'eat' saying anyone gave-not; a-in-ā lūn-in ka-ti-lē a-nūm-poi, hishouse-in, 'enter' saying he-wished-not.

Participles.—The Relative participles have been mentioned under Relative pronouns.

Adverbial participles are formed by adding in or ing; thus, pūon, carrying; hing, being. Compare Verbal noun, above. A suffix tā forms adverbial participles in kai-ho nom-tā an nē-aū-tā ūm-taū-tē, we merrily rice eating let-us-ren ain. This participle is probably formed from the past verbal noun in tā by adding the postposition ā, in.

Conjunctive participles are formed by adding the postpositions  $\bar{\epsilon}n$  or in,  $l\bar{\epsilon}$ , and  $n\bar{a}$ , to the verbal noun. Thus, a-ngong-in ko- $\bar{\epsilon}n$  a-chop-m $\bar{\epsilon}$ , his-neck-on embracing he-kissed;

a-in-ā a-hūng-lē kayāi, his-house-to having-come he-heard; a-chē-nā a-gi-yom-tai, he-went-and joined.

There is no Passive voice. 'I am struck' must be translated 'somebody strikes me.' Thus,  $kei-m\bar{a}-\bar{e}$   $w\bar{e}$ , me-concerning striking;  $ka-m\bar{u}-ki-t\bar{a}i$ , I found him again, he was found again;  $kei-m\bar{a}-\bar{e}$  woa-ding  $a-h\bar{e}$ , me-concerning striking-for it-is, I shall be struck.

Compound verbs are formed in order to modify the meaning of the primary verbs. Thus,  $h\bar{u}ng$ - $lh\bar{e}$ -in, coming-running, running towards; a-hom- $p\bar{e}$ - $t\bar{a}$ , he-divided-gave. The prefix hin or han denotes motion towards the speaker; thus, hin-cho-in, bring; ko  $h\bar{e}ng\bar{a}$  na-han-choham, whom from did-you-buy? I cannot see the meaning of the prefix which occurs in the forms ga and ka; thus, ga- $l\bar{a}n$ , take-from; ga-sok- $\bar{e}n$ , draw-from; ka- $g\bar{a}i$ , he heard; ka- $ch\bar{e}$ - $l\bar{e}$ , having gone; ka-ching-e, he-is-grazing, etc. Compare the prefix ka or ga in Bodo, Nāgā, and Kachin languages.

Causatives are formed by adding  $p\bar{a}$  or pi, to give, and  $s\bar{a}$ , to make (?). Thus,  $b\bar{u}$ - $p\bar{e}$ -in, cause to wear; sil-pi-in, cause to wear; a-mang- $s\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$ , he-lost-made, he wasted. Causatives are also formed by prefixing su; thus, ka phat-vet a-su-ket-pa koi hi-am, my looking-glass its-breaker who is, who broke my glass; but a-ket- $t\bar{a}i$ , it is broken. Desideratives are formed by adding  $n\bar{u}m$ ,  $n\bar{o}m$ , to wish; mi tampi a- $ch\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{u}m$ -ta-poi, men many they-to-go-wished-not. Potentiality is expressed by adding thai, to be able; thus, kei hi-thai- $n\bar{u}ng$ - $\bar{e}$ , I to-be-able-be-shall, I may be. Ki denotes mutuality; thus, ki- $p\bar{a}$ - $\bar{e}n$ , being glad together; a ki- $ch\bar{u}$ -chonin, they quarrelled. Other additions are  $d\bar{e}$ - $d\bar{e}$ , to be about;  $f\bar{a}$ , it is good; kit, khit, back, again, etc.  $F\bar{e}t$ - $l\bar{e}$  and  $f\bar{e}t$ -nin are added in a-man- $f\bar{e}t$ - $l\bar{e}$   $k\bar{u}$ - $m\bar{u}k$ - $f\bar{e}t$ -nin, he lost-having-been I-found-again.  $F\bar{e}t$  probably means 'to go,' and the literal translation of the clause is perhaps, 'he-lost-gone-having my-seeing-went.'

The Negative particle is hi; thus, kein ka-nūm-hi-ē ka-ti-hi-ē, 'I-wish-not,' I said not; hūng-hi-in, do not come. Another negative is poi; thus, a-hi-poi, it-is-not, no; ni-pē-poi, thou-gavest-not; a-nūm-ta-poi, he-wished-not; kai chē-pong-ē, I will not go. A third negative, lo or lon, occurs in a-fa-lo, good-not, bad; mighi-lon, bad, etc.

The Interrogative particle is am. See Interrogative pronouns.

The usual Order of Words is subject, object, verb.

[No. 4.]

# TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

a-chā

# KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

THĀDO.

KHONZĀI.

Pasal

(STATE, MANIPUR.).

## SPECIMEN L

### (Babu Bisharup Singh, 1899.)

khat

a-hai-yē. A-mā-mikā pasal ni a-lhūm-pā Man his-child male two they-were. Them-from one the-younger hiskai chan-ding 'sēl-a-sūm a-mā kai hēngā pēn,' chā-pān, 'Ka-pā, son-by, 'My-father, my share-for property that me to give, his-father a-pān sām a-bon-in Ni hēngā sē-in. A-mā-nikā a-hom-pē-tā. thūm said. Them-for his-father-by property allhe-divided-gave. Daysthree ni li a-chā-pā a-lhūm-pān sūm a-bou pūon a-gam-la-pē days four remaining his-son younger-by property allcarrying far khanā mi-khūā a-chē-tāi. Ka-chē-lē a-lim-lo-in-kisān a-sūm one-to village he-went. Having-gone wickedly-even his-property a-bon a-mang-tāi. A-sūm a-bon a-mang-yo-in ka-chen a-khūā an allhe-wasted-having that-in village rice allhe-wasted. His-property a-dā-talhē-č. a-hā-talhē-ē. Chăng-ti-wai-be-she-tan a-ma he he-wretched-extremely-became. it-dear-extremely-became. Scarcity-being pasal khat-a a-chē-nā a-gi-gom-tāi. 'Wok na-ching-in,' a-folā Amān he-joined. ' Pigs thou-tend.' Him-by that-place-in man one-to he-going kisēn a-sol-tāi. Wokan 'niang' ka-ti-le a-pūsal chun a-mān laŭ-ā food even Pigs'that him-by field-to he-sent. saying man a-mān a-sē-tāi, · ka-ti-lē koi-ma-chān i-pē-poi. Limbē a-sē-ēn Sense he-knowing him-by he-said, 'My-father's any-one-by gave-not. saying a-nē-tāi. kai ka-gil-a-kēl-in ka-thi-de-de-e. a-monē soük sūm-lon in-plenty they-eat, I my-belly-its-hunger-with I-to-die-about-am. servants hired "ku-pā, kai Pathēn hēngā ka-mö-tāi, na-hēngā hēngā chēngē. Kai ka-pā go-will, " My-father, I Godto I-sinned. thee-to I my-father to kai cham a-hai-poi. Na-sūm-lo na-souk Na-chā yong ka-mo-tāi. Thy-money-taking thy-servant it-is-not. my being also I-sinned. Thy-son sai-tange.' A-ma hung-kit-ho-ro-en a-pā hēngā a-hūng-ē. khat ni-nai-ta," his-father to he-came. one thou-keep," say-will. Ħе returning a-mā a-mū-tāi, a-lūng-a-si-tāi, hũng-lh**ệ-in** A-gam-lā am-lā-ēn a-pān he-saw, his-mind-it-pitied, coming-running Far-off being-when his-father-by him hēngā a-sēyē, A-chă-pân a-pā a-ngong-in ko-ēn a-chop-mē. he-said, 'My-father, his-neck-on embracing he-kissed. His-son-by his-father to

kain Pathēn hēngā ka-mo-tāi, na-hēngā ka-mo-tāi. yong Na-chā kai me-by God to. I-sinned, thee-to also I-sinned. Thy-son my a-soūk-ho hēngā a-sē-yē, 'Pūon a-fa-tāk hin-cho-in cham a-hai-poi.' A-pān being it-is-not.' His-futher-by his-servants tohe-said, 'Cloth best bringing ka-chā sil-pi-in, a-khonā khojēm bū-pē-in, a-këng-ā khonghūp my-son to-wear-give, his-hand-on. ring put, his-foot-on **sho**e a-thi-tā-banghing, a-hūng-hing-kit-tāi, bū-pē-in, ka-chā hi mang-in-le he-died-because, my-son this he-came-alive-again, lost-being ka-mū-kit-tāi; tū-wānghin kai-ho nom-tā an nē-aū-tā ūm-taū-tē. I-saw-again: therefore rice we merrily eating remain-let-us.' Hi-ti-bol-in a-mā-ho a-nom-in a-ūm-tāi. This-doing they merrily they-remained.

A-song-sung-in a-chā-pā a-tāpin lau-ā am-ē. A-mā a-in-ā a-hūng-lê his-son elder field-in was. He his-house-to he-came-when That-time-at a-khong-bē a-lām a-gin ka-vāi. A-mān a-soük khat ko-in, drum-beating dancing sound heard. Him-by his-servant one calling, 'What a-bol-am?' sē-in a-dong-ē. A-soūk-pān a-ho-ē. 'Na-nāū-pā they-do?' saying he-asked. His-servant-by he-replied, 'Thy-younger-brother he-came; "A-mā a-nā+am-poi a-hūng-ē," sē-in na-pān a-ki-pā-ēn an a-pē.' "He he-ill-being-not he-came," saying thy-father-by he-glad-being rice he-gave. 'lūn-in' ka-ti-lē a-nūm-poi. Thū hi ka-yan a-ma lung-hang-in a-in-ā Word this hearing his-house-in 'enter' saying he-wished-not. he an gry A-pā hūng-in a-mā a-yolē. A-mān a-pā hēngā a-ho-ē, 'Wēr-in, His-father coming him he-entreated. Him-by his-father to he-answered, Look, küm hi-yā nang ka-bol-ā nang na-thū chom-khat chā-yong thaŭ years these-many thy service my-doing-in thou thy-word once even "kain ka-nūm-hi-ē," ka-ti-hi-ē. Hi-ching-ē-lin-yong ka-wol ka-pāitō "me-by I-wish-not," I-said-not. Neverthelessmy-friends my-companions ka-hūng-lhon-in nomtā nē-dēng kēl-chā-nū cha-khat bē ni-pē-poi. I-together-with merrily eating-for goat-young-female one even thou-gavest-not. na-sūm yaūsē sūyo-nū hēngā pēn na-chā-pān a-bon-in a-mang-sā-tā Nang to giving thy-son-by Thy thy-property all harlotsallhe-wasted na-chā-pā hi a-hūng-bamē nang-in **A**-chu-chē an na-pē.' a-pān thy-son this he-coming thee-by rice thou-gavest.' Thereupon his-father-by a-sē-yē, 'Ka-chā, nang-lē kai tan-laŭ-bē-ēn a-ūm-ē, kai-yā am vaŭsē he-said, 'My-son, thee-with I together-being it-is, mine being alla-hē; hi nang-ā na-nāū-pā a-thi-ding-fēt-lē a-hung-hing-fēt-nin, thine this he-died-having he-coming-alive, it-ip; thy-younger-brother a man-têt-lê kū-mūk-fēt-nin, kai-ho nüi-lē-nüp a-fangē-lē.' we he-lost haring been I-finding again, merry-and-glad-to-be it-proper-is.

[No. 5.]

# TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

THADO.

KHONGZĀI.

(STATE, MANIPUR.)

## Specimen II.

### A PIECE OF FOLKLORE TAKEN FROM THE LIPS OF A KUKI-NAGA.

(Babu Bisharup Singh, 1899.)

ton-läin ka-pù séi. Ka-pā mi yaŭsė hülä-hüngkon My-father fore-father in-early-time said, aZZ people nether-land-in Khongsāi-lē Mailhai awol a-hai. a-ūmē. A-mā-ho dēl The-Khongsais-with the-Manipuris friends they-were. they-were. They cloth chēm-in a-ki-chū-lhonin; a-nūn alāyā a-tānē Mailhai-pān disputed; their-mother-by dao-with in-the-middle Cut. The-Manipuris-by khongmā 1 a-sāan-ē. 'A-nung a-thāk-ē,' a-tin  $\mathbf{m}i$ tampi a-nung-ā 'Footmarks are-new,' hoimäng-trees they-cut. saying people many afterwards chūchā Mailhai tampi a-baivē. a-chē, Khongsāin nāchang a-sān-ē, hence the-Manipuris many they-are. The-Kukis-by plantains they-cut, they-went, a-nûng-ā a-dontan. 'A-nung a-lüit-ë a-tin mi tampi afterwards they-sprang-up. ' Footmarks they-are-old ' saying. people many Mi a-chē-nūm-ta-poi. a-lhom a-chē-tāi. Chūchā Khongsāi a-lhom-ā. they-to-go-not-wished. People they-went. fero Hence the-Kukis they -are-few.

### FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Our forefathers have told, that men formerly lived in the bowels of the earth. The Khongzāis and the Meitheis were then friends. One day they quarrelled about a cloth, and their mother took a dao and cut it in two pieces. The Meitheis began to cut haimang trees, and finding their footprints fresh many people followed them. That is the reason why the Meitheis are so numerous. The Khongzāis went to cut plantain trees and then ascended into the earth. These footprints, however, looked rather old, and therefore only few people followed. The Khongzāis are, therefore, few.

<sup>·</sup> Manipuri name of a fruit tres.

### SOKTE.

The Soktē tribe, which includes the Soktēs proper and the Kanhows, occupy the northernmost part of the Chin Hills. They are found on both banks of the Nankathè or Manipur River. The people to the east of this river call their tribesmen to the west Nwengals, from nun, a river; and ngal, across. The Nwengal country proper extends from the latitude of Molbem on the south, to that of Tiddim on the north. The Soktēs, like all the Northern Chins, assert that their tribe originally lived at Chin-Nwe, a village to the north of their old capital Molbem. They derive their name from the verb sok or shok, go down,  $t\bar{e}$  being the plural suffix, and think they are called so because they have 'gone down' from Chin-Nwe.

They trace their pedigree back for six generations, but their first chief of whom anything historical is known is Kantum. He conquered the Nwites who then occupied the northern hills where the Kanhows now live. He also conquered the Yos, the Thādos and the Vaipes. The Yos are still found in the Northern hills and in the hills south-east of Cachar. The Thādos inhabit the hills fringing the plain of Manipur and the Kabaw valley, while the Vaipes have now entirely disappeared from the Chin Hills. Kantum's conquest took place about 1840. His youngest son Yapow succeeded him in the chieftainship, but his eldest son Kanhow had already founded the village Tiddim. Since that time the Soktēs are divided into the Soktēs proper in the south and the Kanhow clan in the north. Kanhow is supposed to have begun to rule about 1848, and his ascension to the throne marks the commencement of raids into Manipur and Burma. The people have in the course of time lost much of their predominance, and are now thoroughly at peace under British rule. The remarks given above are compiled from the following:—

### AUTHORITIES-

CAREY, BERTRAM S., and H. N. Tuck,—The Chin Hills: A History of the People, our Dealings with them, their Customs and Manners, and a Gazetteer of their Country. Vol. i, Rangoon, 1896. History of the Sokte Tribe on pp. 118 and ff.

Scott, J. George, assisted by J. P. Hardinan,—Gazetteer of Upper Burma and the Shan States. Part. I, Vol. i, Rangoon, 1900. Account of the Soktes on p. 456.

No specimens of the language have been obtained for this Survey.

L

#### SIYIN.

The Siyins occupy the hills round Fort White to the cast of the Soktes. To the north they are bounded by the Kanhow clan, and to the south by the Tashons. They are called Tautes or Tauktes in the Manipur records. They call themselves Shī-zāng or Sī-yāng. They think that their ancestors came out of a gourd in the village Chin-Nwe. Afterwards they settled near some alkali spring, from which fact they say that their name originated (shī, alkali). The form Siyin is a Burmese corruption, and we have adopted it from the Burmese. The Siyins think that the father of their race lived thirteen generations ago. The different Sivin clans, such as Bweman, Limkai or Sagyilan, Toklaing, and Twantak, are said to have been founded by his successors. The history of the people in the last fifty years consists of a series of raids and struggles against the Burmans and Tashons. Frequently also the different clans were at war with each other. They hold that 'a man should spend his life in fighting, hunting, and drinking, whilst labour is intended for women and slaves only.' Their reputation is very bad, and Messrs. Carey and Tuck lay down the principle that a Sivin should never be pardoned. They are now controlled from Tiddim, and their number was estimated at 1,770 in 1895. Their country is very thinly For further particulars the student is referred to the authorities mentioned below:-

#### AUTHORITIES-

RUNDALL, CAPT. F. M., -Manual of the Siyin Dialect spoken in the Northern Ohin Hills. Rangoon, 1891.

CAREY, BERTEAM S., and H. N. Tuck,—The Chin Hills: A History of the People, our Dealings with them, their Customs and Manners, and a Gazetteer of their Country. Rangoon, 1896. History of the Siyin Tribe, Vol. i, pp. 127 and ff.

Scott, J. George, assisted by J. P. Hardiman,—Gazetteer of Upper Burma and the Shan States. Fart I, Vol. i, Rangoon, 1900. Note on the Siyins on pp. 456 and f.; Siyin vocabulary on pp. 682 and ff.

The Siyin dialect is comparatively well known through Captain Rundall's Manual. The following remarks are taken from his book. They are only intended to give an idea of the chief characteristics of the language:—

**Pronunciation.**—The Siyin dialect seems to be rich in vowels, but Captain Rundall does not describe them so exactly that the different sounds can be phonetically fixed. A kind of  $\ddot{o}$  occurs. It is described as lying between  $\ddot{o}$  and  $\ddot{o}$ . The sounds f and r occur occasionally, but seem to be foreign to the language. L usually corresponds to r in Lai. Y and Z are interchangeable. There are apparently at least two tones, one long and broad, and one short and sharp. But most words seem to be pronounced in what is called the natural tone. Captain Rundall gives no information on this point.

Articles.—The numeral khat, one, is used as an indefinite article, and demonstrative pronouns supply the place of a definite article.

**Nouns.**—Gender is, when necessary, denoted by means of suffixes. The male suffixes are  $p\bar{a}$ , for human beings, and tul, for animals. The corresponding female suffixes are  $n\bar{u}$  and pui. Sometimes, in the case of nouns of relationship, different words are used; thus,  $p\bar{a}$ , father;  $n\bar{u}$ , mother:  $p\bar{u}$ , grandfather;  $p\bar{i}$ , grandmother.

Number.—The plural suffix is tē.

Case.—The suffix of the agent is  $n\bar{a}$ ; the Genitive is denoted by putting the governed before the governing noun; in the Vocative  $\bar{o}$  is prefixed to the noun.

Adjectives.—The adjectives follow the noun they qualify. The particle of comparison is  $s\bar{a}ng$ . The suffix of the comparative is  $z\hat{a}$ , and that of the superlative bil.

Numerals.—The first numerals are as follows:—

One				khat.	í	Six			lōk, luk.	Twenty . khan-nī, sōm-nī, or kul.
Two				nī.		Seven	•		salī.	Fifty som ngā.
Three	•	•		tōm, thum.		Eight	•	•	lie(t).	Hundred . ya khat.
Four			•	l₹.		Nine	•	•	$kw\bar{o}$ .	gw Milw.
Five		•	•	$ngar{a}$ .		Ten	•	•	sōm, khan khat.	

Captain Rundall does not mention any generic prefixes, and in most of his instances no such occur. I have, however, found two, tang, apparently for round things, and kiap, for money. Thus, ā-tui tang som, ten eggs; ngūn kiap khat, one rupee.

Pronouns. -- The following are the Personal pronouns: --

 $k\bar{e}$ - $m\bar{a}$ , I;  $k\bar{o}$ - $m\bar{a}$ , we: nang- $m\bar{a}$ ,  $n\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$ ,  $n\bar{o}$ - $m\bar{a}$ , and nang, thou, you:  $am\bar{a}$ , he;  $am\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{e}$ , they. Shorter forms occur as prefixes. See verbs, below.

The Interrogative pronouns are a-kō or akwō, who? akwi and kwēi, which? a-bāng and bāng, what?

Verbs.—Pronominal prefixes are generally used before verbs in order to denote the person of the subject. They are ka,  $k\bar{i}$ , I; ka, ku, we: na,  $n\bar{i}$ , thou, you: a, he, they.

The verb substantive  $h\bar{i}$  seems to be added to all tenses. The root, with this addition, is used to denote present and past time.

The suffixes of the Past time are  $y\bar{o}$  and  $t\bar{a}$ , to which  $h\bar{\imath}$  is added.

The suffix of the Future is  $t\bar{u}$ , to which  $h\bar{z}$  or  $w\bar{e}$  is added. Tu also occurs as a post-position meaning 'for.'

The suffixes of the *Imperative* are o, plural wō, tān, tēō, and tēun. The negative imperative is formed by adding hi-yāo or yāo.

The root alone is used as an Infinitive or Verbal noun. I have not found instances of an Infinitive of purpose.

The root alone is also used as a *Relative participle*, prefixed to the qualified noun. *Adverbial participles* are formed by a kind of reduplication; thus, ka-kap, crying. The suffix of the *Conjunctive participle* is  $\bar{a}$ . A *Noun of agency* is formed by adding  $p\bar{a}$ .

There is no *Passive voice*. Instead of saying 'I am struck' we must say 'he struck me.' Sometimes, however, verbs, such as *ngat*, *dō*, and *khām*, to suffer, are used, and sentences are formed such as *hong-vāt kē-mā ka-ngat-hi*, striking I suffer.

Compound verbs are used in order to modify the meaning of the principal verb. They supply the place of adverbs, as in all connected languages.

The Negative particles are  $b\bar{o}$ , bong,  $ng\bar{o}l$ , al, and  $bw\bar{e}$ . They are immediately added to the verb or its suffixes, before the final  $h\bar{z}$ .

The Interrogative particles are yim, mo, ngē, and nē.

The preceding remarks have no other aim than to make it possible to use this dialect for comparison of grammatical structure. For instances illustrating them, and for fuller particulars the student is referred to Captain Rundall's Manual. A list of standard words and phrases, printed below, has been taken from the same source.

### RALTE.

The Ralte dialect is spoken in the Lushai Hills between Tri Dan and Dhaleswari, to the south of Vanhang, and in the Cachar Plains. The figures reported are as follows:—

Lushai Hills								
Cachar Plains	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	(133(1)
					To	IAL	•	15,133

In the Cachar Plains the Deputy Commissioner gives 399 as the total of Rāltē. Saimar, and Langrong, without saying how many speakers there are of each. The Rāltēs have come down from the Cachar Hills to the south and east of the Sadr Sub-division in the plains since the Census of 1891. Mr. Soppitt found them in the Cachar Hills and says about them:—

'These people have only very lately come from Lushai-land, and there are no great number of them in British territory. In Cachar (in a village near Nemotha) they are commonly spoken of, and looked upon, as Lushais. They may, perhaps, be looked upon as being the link between the real Lushais and the people now called Kukis.'

Mr. Soppitt classes them as an off-shoot of the Jangshen tribe. Most of the Raltes are found in the Lushai Hills, but they have not been settled there for a long time. Colonel Elles quotes the following statement by Mr. McCabe:—

'The Raltes are a low caste tribe of Kukis, who are alleged to have come from the north, and to have been brought under subjection by the Duliens, who migrated from the Chin Hills. They have distinct social customs, as well as a marked difference in dialect, and are not allowed to intermingle with the higher castes. A separate portion of the village is assigned to them, and, if a human sacrifice is necessary, they enjoy the privilege of providing the offering. They predominate in the Western Lushai villages of Lenkhunga, Kalkhom, and Lalrhima.'

The Raltes have accepted the domination of the Duliens, but are said to have retained their customs and their language. Mr. Davis remarks:—

'They are looked down on by the Duliens, but in more than one northern village the Sailo chiefs habitually use the Ralte language amongst their own people, who are almost without exception all members of that tribe. Amongst the Raltes, however, the Dulien language is generally understood, though I have come across more than one instance lately in which Raltes, both men and women, though they understood the Dulien when they heard it spoken, were unable to use it with sufficient freedom to reply to questions in it. The differences between the two languages are very considerable, and a man who has a very thorough knowledge of Dulien only is quite at sea if addressed in the Ralte language.'

I am indebted to Major J. Shakespear, C.I.E., D.S.O., I.S.C., for a translation of the Parable of the Prodigal Son in Rāltē. It shows that the Rāltē dialect of the Lushai Hills has been largely influenced by Lushēi, the principal language of the district.

The following remarks are entirely based on this specimen, and must be used with caution.

**Pronunciation.**—It is difficult to come to any conclusion as to the pronunciation of Raltō from the specimen. Long vowels are not marked, but probably every final vowel of a word or syllable is long, just as in Lushōi. The abrupt shortening of a vowel is indicated by adding an h, but this pronunciation seems to be rather indistinct, for we find, for instance, the same words written mu and muh, ka and kah. The same remark holds good with regard to the vowel  $\tilde{a}$ . We find substituted for it in the same words both a

and o, thus  $\hat{a}h$  or oh,  $z\hat{a}$  or zo,  $m\hat{a}$  or ma, etc. In a similar way we find o for ao, thus no, young; ia and e in pe, pia, give, etc. When o is followed by a vowel a euphonic v is inserted, thus lo-v-a, in the fields; tho-v-ing-a, will arise; a-pe-shi-o-v-u-a, they gave not, etc. After m we occasionally find a euphonic m inserted; thus, a-lut-nuam-m-o-va, heto-enter-wished-not. Euphony seems also to be the reason for our finding the same word written tun and tung, thus, a-hang-tun-dan-in, he-to-come-now-being-about; but a-hong-tung-ka-a, he arrived now, that is to say we have n before a dental, ng before a guttural. A ch in some cases corresponds to a Lushēi f, thus cha, Lushēi  $f\bar{a}$ , child,  $cha\bar{p}$ , Lushēi fap, to kiss; lah-cha-dun, a servant, compare Lushēi hlah- $f\bar{a}$ , a hireling. The aspirated liquids do not occur.

Articles.—There are no articles in the language. The numeral 'one,' and indefinite pronouns are used instead of an *indefinite* article; pronominal prefixes, demonstrative pronouns, or relative participles supply the place of a *definite* article. Thus, *mi kuai-má*, a man; *láh-cha-dun pa-kat*, a servant; a nao-pang-zok, the younger.

Nouns.—Gender is only apparent in the case of animate nouns. Names of animals are neuter when they are not distinguished by generic suffixes. Gender is not distinguished when no ambiguity can arise. Pa denoting males, is the only generic suffix occurring in the specimens. Thus cha-pa, child-male, son; u-pa, elder brother.

Number.—There are two numbers, singular and plural. The number of the subject of a sentence is indicated by the pronominal prefix. See below. When it is necessary to indicate the plural, the suffix ke is used. Thus boi-ke, slaves. This suffix seems to be added to the last part of a compound word though it belongs to the first, thus, vok-châ-ke, pigs, food, lit., pig-foods. A short postposition may be inserted between the noun and the suffix, thus, khut-a-ke, on the hands; but ka-thian-ke lak-a, with my friends.

Case.—The Nominative is formed without any suffix. Thus, na nao a hong-tung-a, your younger brother he came back. The suffix in denoting the agent, is added to a noun when it is the subject of a transitive verb, thus, cha-pa-in a-ti-a, his son he-said. In may be inserted between the different parts of a compound pronoun; thus, mi ku-in-ai-mâ, a certain man, where ku-ai-mâ is the pronoun. No suffixes of the Accusative and the Dative occur in the specimen. The Genitive is denoted by the bare stem preceding the governing word; thus, ro ka-chan-ai, of the property my share. There is apparently no instance of a used as a suffix of the genitive. Van-a mi, the man of the heaven, God, must probably be explained as 'the man in heaven.'

The suffixes of the *Locative* are *in* and *a*; thus *lim-tak-in*, joy-great-in; *khua-a*, in a village. The interjection *he* is prefixed to the *Vocative*, thus, *he pa*, O father. Other relations are expressed by postpositions, such as, *a*, in, to; *lak-a*, with, to; *lam-a*, in the direction of; *chung-a*, against, etc.

Adjectives.—Adjectives follow the noun they qualify, and case suffixes are added to them, not to the qualified noun; thus,  $kh\acute{a}$ -lam la-tak-a, into a very distant country. The suffix of the comparative degree is  $z\acute{a}k$  or zok, and that of the superlative ber; thus, nao-pang  $z\acute{a}k$ , younger; pha ber, best.

Numerals.—The numerals follow the noun. Only the two first numerals occur. They are pa-khat, one; pa-nih, two, and are identical with the Lushēi forms. Pa is the generic prefix; see Introduction, p. 19.

BÄLTĒ.

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Pronouns.—The following are the Personal pronouns:—

Singular,—

kei, ka, I. na, thou. a-ni, a, he.

nai, ai, me.

ka, my. nangmai, na, thy. a, his.

ka-ta, mine. na-ta, thine. a-mai-ta, his.

Plural,-

ka-u, we. u, you. a-u, they.

The forms ka, na, a, and a-u, also occur as pronominal prefixes, see below. The forms ka-u and a-u are compound words, and other words are inserted between the two components. Thus, ka-mu-leh-ka-u, we saw-again, where the first ka is the pronoun; a-pa-nih-u, they two.

A Reflexive pronoun is perhaps i in i-mu-leh-ka a-hi-e, mutually (i.e., by us) seen again he is.

The Demonstrative pronouns are hi, hi-hi, this; chu, chu-chu, that.

There is no Relative pronoun, its place being supplied by the use of participles or verbal nouns. There are only two instances in the specimen, lam-la tuk-a a om lai-in-a, at the time at which he was very far off; hi na cha-pa hi na shum cha-zo-vek-tu, this your son who entirely wasted your property.

The only instance of an Interrogative pronoun is i-ha, what? Thus, chu i-ha hi-tah? that what is?

The Indefinite pronouns which occur in the specimen are kuai-ma, a certain; ku-ma, any one; i-kha or i-kha, some, whatever; i-ma, anything.

Verbs.—Verbs are conjugated in person and number by means of pronominal prefixes. The following occur:—

ka, I; ka-u, we: na, thou: a, he, she, it; a-u, they. When the subject is a neuter noun the prefix a is also used to denote the plural; thus, vok-in a chak, the pigs ate.

The verb is inserted between the two parts of the plural prefixes, thus, a-pe-shi-o v u-a, they gave not. Compare also below, Imperative and Present participle. The prefixes are dropped in the imperative and after nai, ai, me.

The root alone is freely used to denote the present and past tenses; thus a hi, he is, or was. The particle e may be added; thus a hi-e, he is. The suffix a is used in the same way; thus, a ti-a, he said. When the sentence is dependent on a subsequent clause to complete the meaning of the speaker (compare below, Conjunctive participle), this a may be translated 'and', the conjunction leh, and, being only used to connect words, not sentences. Thus a ti-a a zāt-a, he said and he asked.

The suffix of Past tenses is ka, ka-a, thus, a kel-ka-a, he went. The suffix tah in i-ha hi-tah, what is that? is also a suffix of the past or completed action. A kind of Perfect is effected by adding the verb substantive; thus, a hong-dam-leh-ka a-hi, he came alive again it is, he has indeed revived.

The suffix of the Future is ing, ing-a, thus ka tho-v-ing-a, I will arise; ka ti-ing, I will say.

The suffix of the *Imperative* is ah, ah, plural  $u \cdot a$ ; thus,  $pia \cdot ah$ , give; thei-oh, listen;  $tal \cdot u \cdot a$ , kill you. The first person plural is formed by the prefix i, and the suffix ing; thus,  $i \cdot cha \cdot ing$ , let us eat. Compare Future, above.

The Infinitive is formed without any suffix, thus; chak-vah, to cat. The suffix of the infinitive of purpose is ang, nang, ang-in; thus, lim-nang, in order to rejoice; pia-ang-in, in order to give. Compare the use of ang in a-mai-ta-ang, for his sake.

The suffix of the *Present participle* is lan, leng. There are no instances of a participle referring to the first person, to the second person singular, or the third person plural. In the second person plural un is prefixed to lan or u is prefixed, and a suffixed. The former method seems to be due to the influence of Standard Lushēi where n is the common plural suffix in the pronominal prefixes. In the third person singular the termination seems to be leng. This participle is substituted for the imperative when more than one forms of the mood follow each other, the last one only remaining in the imperative. If ma be inserted between the verb and the ending, the meaning becomes 'although.' Thus, han-la-thuai-un-lan, you bringing quickly; han-la-u-lan-a, you bringing; hi-ma-leng, that being although, nevertheless.

The locative suffixes a and in are used in forming Adverbial and Conjunctive participles. Thus hin-kial-in ka thi-dán-a, hungering I am about to die; a bo-v-a ka-mu-leh-ka-u a hi, he having been lost has been seen again by us. The suffix a is very freely used after all tenses, see above.

A Noun of agency is formed by adding the suffix tu; thus, na shum cha-zo-vek-tu, your property's waster.

There is no *Passive voice*; ka-mu-leh-ka-u a-hi, he was found again, literally means 'we saw him again it is,' 'we certainly saw him again.'

Compound verbs are freely used and suffixes are then added to the last component. Thus, Causatives are formed with tik; thus, han-bun-tik-u-a, cause him to wear. Desideratives are formed with nuam, to wish; thus, a lut-nuam-mo·v-a, he to-enterwished-not. The verb dán has the meaning 'to be about;' thus ka thi-dán-a, I am about to die. Other words used as the last part of compounds are shen, to spend, completely; puih, to help; leh, again; thuai, quickly; vek, entirely; em, exceedingly, very; záh, zo, to the last; and the prefixes ha, han, upwards or towards; zu, down, etc.

The Negative particle is o, thus ka hi-o, 1 am not; lut-nuam-m-o-va, to enter wished not.

Order of Words.—The usual order of words is subject, direct object, indirect object, verb. The genitive precedes the governing word. Adjectives and numerals follow the word they qualify. Demonstrative pronouns seem to be put at the beginning of the clause.

[No. 6.]

## TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

## KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

#### RALTE.

(LUSHAI HILLS.)

(Major J. Shakespear, C.I.E., D.S.O., I.S.C., 1900.,

'He Mi ku-in-ai-mâ cha-pa pa-nih nei-a. A-nao-pang-zok-in, 8. got. 60 Man a-certain-by troo he The-young-more-by, sons pia-àh.' a ti-a. A shum chu ka chan-ai ai pa, said. he Hisproperty that father, property-of my share me give, hàm-a. Ni-shàt-o-tak-a a-nao-pang-zok-in a a-pa-nih-u lak-a a divided. Days-long-not-very-in the-young-more-by them-two tohe kel-puih-ka-a. khâ-lam la-tak-a kham-vek-a 8 shum a-reng-in a country far-very-to he brought. all he collecting-entirely aoodsa shum chu nuam-lu-tuk-in om-a, Chu-mi-chun a There comfortable-very-being he remained. his property that hechu khâ-lam chu tak-in shen-zâh-ve-leh nase bo-ral-tik-ka-a. A thattroublewasted. He spent-entirely-when that country great-in khua-a kuai-mâ ta-sham-a. Tin chu lam a-tam-ka-u-a. chak-ang a place village-in a-certain foodhe had-exhausted. Then that they-hungered, lak-a chuna na-shem-in a zu-pang-a, chu mi chun vok-châ-ke pia-ang-in with there work-doing he down-went, that man that-by pigs-food give-in-order-to I-khâ kâm vok-in a chak. chu shâl-la. a-lo-lam-a ล Whatever food the-pigs-by they ate, that his-fields-direction-to he sent. a-pe-shi-o-vu-a. A a-ni-pah-in chak-vah nuam-em-em-a, ku-ma i-ma a. him-by-also to-eat-full he wished-very-much, any-one anything they-gave-not. Пе lak-a lâh-chadun-ke châ chak-shen-o-va nei 'Ka harh-leh-ve-leh. na rice to-eat-finishing-not got awake-again-when, 'My father withhired-servants thi-dân-a. kei la-chu hin-kial-in ka Ka hi-to-va a-tam-vei-u-tuah, to-die-am-about. Ι  $\boldsymbol{I}$ I even here hungry-being they-many-very, lak-a ka ha-shoi-ing-a, "He pa, van-a  $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{i}$ tho-ving-a ka pa father, sky-in man my father " O arise-will toΙ go-say-will, leh nang-mai mit-muh-in thil ti-shual-a. ka  $\min$ na cha-pa ka an neyour son toeye-sight-in thing I did-wrong, myandvour loh-chadun pa-khat bang-in ai hi-o: na lak-a tak ka vuah like servant one me make." 1 am-not; you with bear worthy kel-ka-a. Chu-ti-chun lam la-tak-a Tin a tho-va a lak-a a Then way far-very-at I say-will.' Then he arose him to he went. a khâ-ngaih-a, a tai-a. ir om-lai-in-a pa-in a na-mua, he hishe being-time-at his father-by he saro. ha loved. ran, chest he

a cha-pa-in, 'He chuk-tuah-a, a chap-a.  $\mathbf{A}$ lak-a pa, van-a mi 'O father, sky-in man against tohisson-by, embraced, he kissed. Him ka ti-shual-a, ka min thil nangmai mit-mu-in  $\mathbf{n}\mathbf{a}$ cha-pa eye-sight-in thing  $\boldsymbol{I}$ did-wrong, my name your and your sonto-bear ti-a. Hi-ma-leng  $\mathbf{a}$ pa-in  $\mathbf{a}$ boi-ke lak-a, 'Puan worthy I am-not,' he said. Nevertheless his father-by his slaves han-la-thuai-un-lan choi-tik-u-a, a khut-a-ke zung-buh, here-bringing-quickly-you best to-wear-cause, hishands-on rings, khe-a-ke pheikok han-bun-tik-u-a, she-bang-no thao tak chu han-la-ufeet-on bootsput, a-cow-young fat very that here-bringinglan-a tal-u-a. Lim-tak-in i-cha-ing, hi ka cha-pa hi  $\mathbf{a}$ a-hong-nangthi Joufully let-us-eat, this my son this he dead-was kill. vou he-camea-hi. bo-va ka-mu-leh-ka-u a hi,' a ti-a. Tin lim-tak-in alive-again he-is, he lost-was we-saw-again he is,' he said. Then joyfully a-om-pan-ka-u-a. they-to-be-began.

a cha-pa u-pa-zâk lo-va om, hong-tun-dân-in in-a i-kho Then his son old-more fields-in was, house-to arrive-about-being 80me tum-ri leh a-lam-thâm-u thei-ka-a. Tin chu a kuai-må a sham-a. drum-sound and their-dance-sound that he heard. Then somebody he called, 'chu i-ha hi-tah?' a ti-a a zát-a.  $\mathbf{A}$ lak-a, ' na nao а that what is? ? he said he asked. Him'your to, younger-brother he hong-tung-ka-a, him-tak-a a mu-leh-a vang-in na pa-in se-bang-no safe-quite he seeing-again on-account-of your father-by calf thao-tak hi-za a tal-a. a ti-a. Tin a lai-na-a in-a lutfat-very this-indeed he killed,' he said. Then he angry-getting house-in he to-enternuam-mo-va, a pa a hong-dak-a them-a.  $\mathbf{a}$ Hi-ma-leng his father he came-looked-out he persuaded. Nevertheless his father wishing-not. lak-a, 'Thei-oh, kum khâ hi-chan na na ka shem-a-a, na thu la-hi ka year every now-till your work I did,your word even I oi-o-ngai-shi-o-va, ka thian-ke lak-a lim-nang kel-cha nai to-obey-not-considered-never, myfriends with rejoice-to kid me pe-ngai-shi-o. Chu-ti-in hi na cha-pa hi ná-chi-zuak lak-a to-give-(you)considered-never. Butthis your 80n here harlots with cha-zo-vek-tu na shum hi a hong-kel-ve-leh a-mai-ta-ang se-bâng-no your goods ate-up-entirely-who he he returns-when his-sake-for calf thao chu-na na lat-vei-a. a ti-a a don-a. Tin a lak-a, 'Ka cha-pa ka fat that-for you kill, he said he replied. Then him to, 'My 80nlak-a na om-reng-ho-va, ka-ta a-piang na-ta a. hi-e. Lim with you remain-regularly, mine whatever thine tak leh it i8. Joy greatand lam tak-a om a pha-ho-va. Hi na nao hi happiness great-in to-live it good-is. This your younger-brother this he dead-was he hong-dam-leh-ka a hi. A bo i-mu-leh-ka a-hi-e,' came-alive-again he is. He lost seen-again he-is,' he said.

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### PAITE.

It has already been stated on p. 55, that the Lushēis call all the hill tribes who wear their hair in a knot upon the top of the head Poi, or Pai. It has also been pointed out that most of the Central and Soutnern Chin tribes tie their hair up in this way. The Pois of the Southern Lushai Hills all speak dialects belonging to the Central Chin sub-group. See below, pp. 107 and 115. A thousand individuals in the North Lushai Hills have been returned as speaking Paitē. This word is simply the plural of pai or poi, mentioned above, and Paitē should accordingly be supposed to be a Central Chin dialect. As a matter of fact, however, the dialect is more closely related to the Northern sub-group, and may conveniently be described as the connecting link between both groups.

There is now no village in the Northern hills composed altogether of people speaking Paitē, but there are a few speakers in every Lushēi village. They have accepted the Dulien domination, and are usually considered as one of the branches of the Mizaos. Compare below, pp. 127 and f.

I am indebted to Major J. Shakespear, C.I.E., D.S.O., I.S.C., for a translation of the Parable of the Prodigal Son in Paitē, and this translation is the basis of the remarks on Paitē grammar which follow:—

Pronunciation.—The abrupt shortening of a vowel indicated by a following h is apparently not very decided, for we find the same words written le and leh; lo and loh;  $z\acute{a}$  and  $z\acute{a}h$ , etc. Spellings such as ngai or ngei, may or may not represent different pronunciations. The word pe, to give, becomes pia before i. The i of the suffix in may be dropped after a vowel; thus, a-ma-n, he; pa-n or pa-in, by the father. A euphonic v is inserted between o and a following vowel; thus, lo-v-a, in the fields. Perhaps also the n in lim-na, in joy, is euphonic. The consonant g, which does not occur in Lushēi, is common; thus, gil, also written ngil, corresponds to Lushēi ril, stomach. The verb tung, to come, is also written tun; from nek, to eat, is formed i-ne-di, let us eat; the numeral 'two' is written pa-nhi and pa-ni. Interesting is the word ki-loh, corresponding to Lushēi  $lh\acute{a}h$ , wages. Compare above, p. 16.

Articles.—There are no articles in the language, indefinite pronouns and the numeral pa-khat, one, being used as an indefinite article, and pronominal prefixes, demonstrative pronouns, or relative participles supplying the place of a definite article.

**Nouns.**—Gender.—Nouns denoting animals, unless the gender is specially distinguished, seem to be neuter. Thus we find vok-in a nek, the pigs ate, where the singular pronominal prefix is used before the verb. Only one suffix denoting gender occurs in the specimen, viz., pa, denoting males, in ta-pa, son.

Number.—There are two numbers, singular and plural. When the plural is marked, the suffix te is used, thus, boi-te, slaves; vual-te, friends.

Case.—The Nominative, Accusative, and Dative are formed without any suffix. The suffix in, denoting the agent, is added to a noun when it is the subject of a transitive verb. Before nei, to possess, have, a is used instead in mi kua-hiam-a ta-pa pa-nhi a nei-a, a man had two sons. The Genitive is expressed by prefixing the stem to the governing word; thus a vok an, his pigs' food. In van-a tung-a, before heaven, the pronoun a seems to be suffixed to van to form a genitive, lit., the heaven its top-in.

The suffixes of the Locative are in and a; thus, lai-in, time-at; lo-v-a, fields in.

The *Vocative* takes no suffix, but the interjection he may be prefixed; thus, pa or he pa, O father.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions, such as lak, lak-a, to, with; lam-a, in the direction of; tung-a, against, etc.

Adjectives.—Adjectives follow the noun they qualify, and case endings are added to them and not to the qualified noun; thus gam la-tak-a, country distant-very-to.

The suffix of the Comparative is zá, záh, more; thus, lian-záh, bigger. The Superlative degree is formed by adding ber, very, most, to the positive; thus, hoi-ber, best; thao-ber, very fat.

Numerals.—The numerals which occur in the specimen are pa-khat, one; pa-nhi or pa-ni, two. They follow the word they qualify. Pa is the generic prefix; see above, p. 19.

Pronouns.—The following Personal pronouns occur:—

Singular,—

ke, ka, I.

wa, you.

a-ma, a, he.

ka, my.

nang-ma, na, your. nang-a, yours.

a, his.

Plural,—

ka—u, we.

u, a—u, they.

The forms ka, I; na, you; a, he; ka - u, we; a - u, they, are used as pronominal prefixes; see Verbs, below.

The following Demonstrative pronouns seem to occur: hi, hi-ai, this; hu, hu-ai, that; ha or kha, that; ku, that; mi, that.

There is no Relative pronoun. Participles and verbal nouns are used instead; thus, na ta-pa ná-chi-zuak lak-a na sum ne-zo-vek-tu, your son harlots with your property spent-entirely-who.

Bang seems to be the Interrogative pronoun 'what?' thus, hu-ai bang a-hi-ta, that what is it? A demonstrative pronoun added after an interrogative clause conveys the idea of relativity; thus, vok-in bang-poh a nek, ku-chu a-ma-n leng ngil vah a-nek a-ut-em-em-a, the pigs whatever did they eat? that-even he also his-stomach full to-eat he-wished-much.

The following Indefinite pronouns occur,—kua-hiam, a certain; kua-ma, someone, or, with the negative, nobody; bang-poh, some, what-ever; bang-ma, with the negative, nothing.

Verbs.—Verbs are conjugated in person and number by means of pronominal prefixes. The following occur:—

ka, I, ka—u, we; na, thou; a, he, a—u, they. The verb is inserted between the two parts of the plural prefixes, thus, ka mu-non-ta-u, we saw again. When the subject is a neuter noun, the singular prefix a is also used to denote the plural, thus, vokin a nek, the pigs ate. The prefixes are dropped in the imperative (see below). After kua-ma, anyone, the plural prefix is used, the first part of it being, however, apparently dropped, thus, kua-ma-in bang-ma pe-shi-kei-u-a, anybody anything gave-not. In the clause a ta-pa lian-zāh lo-v-a om, his son the big more the-fields-in was, the prefix seems to have been fused into one sound with the preceding a of lo-v-a.

PAITE. 83

The root alone is used to denote present and past tense; thus, a hi, it is; om, he was. The suffix a is usually added; thus, ka hi-a, I am; a chi-a, he said.

The suffixes of *Past tenses* are ta and ka; thus, a thei-ta-a, he heard; a go-ta, he has killed; huai bang a hi-ta, that what happened? Ka, which is the common suffix in Rāltē, only occurs once, in a pai-ka-a, he went.

The suffix of the Future is di, di-a; thus, ka chi-di, I will say.

The suffixes of the *Imperative* are in, or ah, oh, plural u-a. The first person plural is formed by prefixing i to the future tense. Thus, pia-in, give; thei-oh, hear; bun-shak-u-a, put on; i-ne-di, let us eat.

The Infinitive or Verbal noun is formed without any suffix; thus, om, to remain (in happiness is good). Postpositions and adverbial expressions are often added, and in this way adverbial clauses are effected; thus, na-shen-in, work-doing-in, working; a-om-lai-in, his-being-time-at, when he was. The suffix of the infinitive of purpose is di or di-in; thus, pe-di-in, in order to give. Compare lim-na-di, in order to rejoice; a-ma-a-din, for his sake.

Adverbial and Conjunctive participles are formed with the locative suffixes a and in. The former is in common use after all tenses, see above. Of the latter the following is an instance: na-shen-in, working. Another participle is formed by adding la; thus, on-la-meng-meng-un-la, here-bringing-quickly-you, and on-la-un-la, here-bringing-you. In these forms the pronominal element un of the second person plural is prefixed to the suffix la. A participle in the third person singular is perhaps hi-ma-le in hi-ma-le leng, that although-being even, nevertheless. A Noun of Agency is formed by the suffix tu; thus, ne-zo-vek-tu, he who entirely wasted.

There is no Passive voice. Instead of 'I am seen' we must say, 'somebody sees me.' Thus, ka mu-non-ta-u-a a hi, we saw him again it is, he has been seen again by us. Other instances do not occur. But the following seem analogous: a hong-dam-non-ta-a ka hia, he having come alive again I am; a hoi-a ka hi-a, that good being I am.

Compound verbs are very extensively used. Thus we find the verbal prefixes hong, up, as in hong-tho, rise up; on, towards, as in on-la, bring, and va, towards, as in va-pang, go and stay. Causatives are formed by adding shak; thus, bun-shak, to cause to wear, to put on. Desideratives are formed by suffixing nuam; thus, lut-nuam, to wish to enter. Other compounds are formed with non, again; shen, to finish; shin, to be about; thek, always; vek, entirely; zo, till the last, etc.

There are two Negative particles, lo, corresponding to the Lushëi form, and kei; thus, nek-shen-lo-va, to eat finish not; ka hi-kei, I am not. Both are combined in ka oi-lo-ngei-shi-kei-a, I to-obey-not-considered-not, I did not disobey.

[No. 7.]

# TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

# KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

PAITE.

(LUSHAI HILLS.)

(Major J. Shakespear, C.I.E., D.S.O., I.S.C., 1900.)

A-nao-pang-zâ-in nei-a. pa-nhi a a ta-pa kna-hiam-a Mi had. The-young-more-by hehis80n8 twoa-certain Man ka chan-ai on-pia-in,' chi-a. go 'He lak-a, pa, pa said. share give. he valuables-of myfather, 0 to. father Ni shât-lo-tak-in pa-ni-u hâm-a. sum-te lak-a 8 Chin divided. Day thehe long-not-very-in mith goodshoth Then his khâm-a. gam la-tak-a a-vek-in а a n ao-pang-zâ-in sum entirely he collected. country far-very-to he goodsyoung-more-by mang-shak-ta-a. nuam-lu-tuk-in om-a sum a 8 pai-pih-ta. Huai-a he wasted.livedhis goods luxuriously-very he There went. khâ-lam mun na-sha-tak-in mang-mung-in a A mus a village neighbourhood exceedingly lost-when thatitproperty Hislak-a Mi kua-hiam lam ta-sama. nek-di a a-tam-a-vok-u, a-certain with That country-of was-in-want. he eating-for they-hungered, pe-di-in lo vok a Huai-in a an va-pang-a. na-shen-in a fields food give-to his pigsHim-by hiswent-stayed. working he chu kâm æ nek, ku a-man hâl-a. Vok-in bang-po lam-a a husks they ate, that even him-by Pigs.by what-ever sent. direction-to he kua-ma-in bang-ma pe-shi-kei-u-a. ut-em-em-a, vah a-nek a ngil leng wished-much, anyone-by anything gave-not. full to-eat he belly also nek-shen-lo-va lak-a ki-lo-fa-te an 'Ka harh-non-mung-in, pa A eat-finishing-not withservants foodawake-again-when, · My father He shi-shin-a. gil-kial-in ka la-chu hiai-a a-tam-tam-tâh. ke nei to-die-am-about. I belly-hunger-in here even I have many-many-very, "Pa tung-a van-a va-gem-di-a, lak-a ka Ka tho-di-a pa " Father, heaven against go-say-will, father to arise-will my I ta-pa a-zat hih-shual-a. ka min na mit-mu-in thu ka nang-ma to-bear name your 80ndid-wrong, my I eye-sight-in things your on-bâl-tei-âh," ki-loh-fa pa-khat bang-in tak ka hi-kei. na lak-a me-make." I like withservant one I worthy am-not. you pai-ka-a. Hu-chi-in chi-di. Chin hong-tho-va a pa lak a 8 Thereupon father went. tohe hissay-will. Then he up-arose khâ-ngai-a na-mu-a, a la-tak-a a-om-lai-in pa-n a а gam he forgave saw, far-very-in his-bein time-at his father-by he way

chuk-tuah-a tai-a âm a a tâp-a. A lak-a  $\mathbf{a}$ a a ta-pa-in, he breastembraced kissed. ťο ran his he he Himhis son-ly, mi le mit-mu-in 'He pa, van-a tung-a nang-ma thu ka father, sky-in against and eye-sight-in 0 man your thing 1 Ka min min-di-in vuah tak ka hi-kei.' hi-shual-ta. na ta-pa Mynameyou son naming-for to-bear worthy Ι am-not? did-wrong. boi-te lak-a. · Puan Hi-ma-le-leng pa-in a hoi-ber chi-a. 8 а · Cloth his father-by his to. Nevertheless servants best he said. on-la-meng-meng-un-la on-shil-shak-u-a, 3. kut-a zung-bun-te here-bringing-quickly-quickly-you here-put-on (him), his hand-on rings khe-a phei-kok bun-shak-u-a, se-bang-no thao ber hun-shak-u-a a feet-on boots to-put-on-cause, cow-young fat hisrery to-put-on-cause tak-in i-ne-di. Hiai go-shak-u-a, lim ka ta-pa a on-la-un-la joy great-in let-us-eat. This he my 8011 kill. here-bringing-you hong-dam-non-ta, hi.' mang-a ka-mu-non-ta-u-a a ถ shi a 8 is. itcame-alive-again, he lost-was we-saw-again he he dead-was chi-a. said.

lian-zâh lo-va in-a hong-tun-shin-in om. Chin ta-pa 8 big-more fields-in was, house-to come-arrive-about-being Then his80M thei-ta-a. Chin leh a-lam-tham-u a boi ging bang-poh tum Then their-dance-noise he heard. slave drumsound and some hi-ta? chi-a a dong-a. 'Huai a sham-a. bang  $\mathbf{a}$ kua-ma a happened? said'That what he he asked. ithe called, a-certain him-tak-a hong-tung-ta-a, a-mu-non-'Na a nao A lak-a came-arrived, safely his-seeing-again-' Your younger-brother he Himto, go-ta, se-bang-no thao tak ha a a chi-a. pa-n ziak-in thatkilled, said. on-account of your father-by calf fat very he hė à lut-nuam-kei-a. a a hongheh-a in-a pa Chin a father he to-enter-wished-not, his hecamehouse-in got-angry Then he Hi-ma-le-leng lak, 'Thei-oh, kum-khua hem-a. 8 pa dak-a Я Nevertheless his father Listen, continually to. persuaded. looked-out he ka oi-lo-ngei-shithu leng ka shem-a. na hiai tan ทล na Ι to-obey-not-consiwordeven your I did.tillyour work ทองอ non-pe-ngei-shilim-na-di kel leng lak-a vnal-te ka kei-a. me-to-give(-you)-coneven friends withrejoicing-for goatmydered-not, ne-zosum nâ-chi-zuak lak-a na Chin ta-pa na kei-a. with your goodsate-upharlots Then your son sidered-never. thao tak kha se-bang-no a-ma-a-din hong-pai-ve-leh hi  $\mathbf{a}$ vek-tu fat very that calf his-sake-for came-went-when he entirely-who ħе

na-go-snak-vial-a,' chi-a dâng-a. Chin lak-a, 'Ka a  $\mathbf{a}$ na saidhe Then he answered.himto, ' My kill, you om-thek-a, ka lak-a neih-poh, nang-a vek hi. ka na a ta-pa, you live-always, I  $having\hbox{-}whatever,$ yours entirelywithit is. meson, tak leh kipale tak-a om  $\mathbf{a}$ hoi-a ka hi-a. Hiaî na Lim and happiness great-in to-live it good-is I Thisam.your Joy greathi shi hong-dam-non-ta-a a a ka hi-a. A nao younger-brother thishcdead-was he came-alive-again I am. Hechi-a. ka-mu-non-ta-u,' lost-was we-see-again-did, said.

# STANDARD WORDS AND SENTENCES

	English	1.		Khon	g2āi (6	of Ma	nipur)	<b>).</b>	Thādo (N	ága H	ills).	Sairang (Cachar Plains).
1. One .	•	•		. Khat					. Khat	•	•	. Khāt
2. Two .	•			. Ni	•	•			Ni .			. Nih
3. Three	٠			. Thum	•				Thum .		•	. Thome
4. Four .	•	•		. Li	•	•			Li.			Lih
5. Five .		•		. Ngā	•	•			Ngā .			Ngā
6. Six .		•		. Güp	•				Ghu-up (gūp)		•	Ghup
7. Seven	w	•		Sagi .					Seed to the			. Sāhgi
8. Eight	•			Gēt .				•	Ghet .	•		Gait
J. Nine .				Kū .					Ko .			Koh
O. Ten .		•		Som .			•		Som, (shom)			Sohm
. Twenty	•	•	•	Som-ni .		•			Somini, (shom-		•	Sohm-nih
. Fifty .				Som-ngā.			•		Som-ngā, (shon			Sohm-ngā
. Hundred			•	Jā-khat .			•	1	Zā-khat			Jhā-khāt
. I .			•	Kei .	•		•		Kēn, (kēi)			. Kēi
. Of me	•			Kei(-thū)			•		Kei-ma			
Mine .	•			Kei-ā					Ditto .	•	•	
We .				Kei-ho .			,		Kei-ho	•	•	Kēi-jāh
Of us	•			Kei-ho(-thū	) .				Kei-ho loi	•	٠.	Kēi-ho
Óur .	•			Kei-ho-ā					Kei-ho lō-u	•	•	Kēi-ho-sikā, kēi-a-thu
Thou ,				Nang .					Tāng	•	•	
Of thee				Nang(-thū)					lang-zhein	•	•	Nāng
Thine				Nang-a .					lang-ho .	•	•	Nāng-sikā, nāng-thū
You .				Nang-ho .	•	•			Ditto	•		Nång-ä
Of you			-	Naug-ho(-th	1)	•	•	N	ung-ho-jein .	•	•	Nāng-ū
Your .				Nang-ho-ā	•	•	•	.		•	1	Nāng-ū-sīkā, nāng-ū-thu
				··	•	•	•	н	ē-ho	•		Nāng-ū-bā

# IN THE NORTHERN CHIN SUB-GROUP.

Kuki of C	achar	(Сатръс	и).	Siyin (Bundali). English.
Khāt .	•	•		Khat 1. One.
Ni	•	•		Ni 2. Two.
Tum .	•			Tom, thum 3. Thrue.
Li .	•	•	•	Li 4. Four.
Ngā .	•	•	•	Nga 5. Five.
Güp .	•	•	•	Lok, luk 6. Six.
Sāgi .	•	•	•	Sali 7. Seven.
Git .	•	•	•	Liet S. Eight.
Ku .	•	•	•	Kw5 9. Nine.
Som .	•	•	٠	Som, or khan khat 10. Ten.
Som-ini .	•	•	•	Khan-ni, sōm-ni, or kul . 11. Twenty.
Som-nga	•	•	•	Som ngū 12. Fifty.
Jā-khāt .	•	•	•	Ya khat 13. Hundred.
Kei .	•	•	-	Kē-mā 14. I.
(Kei-mân)	•	•	•	Ka, or ki 15. Of me.
Kei-mā .	•	•	•	16. Mine.
Kei-ha .	•	•	•	Kōmā 17. We.
(Kei-hām)	•	•	•	Ka, or ku 18. Of us.
Kēi-ha .	•	•	•	19. Our.
Nāng .	•	-	-	Nang-mā, nā-mā, nang . 20. Thou,
(Nāng-mān		•	-	Nā, nī 21. Of thee.
Nāng-mā	•	•	•	22. Thine.
(Näng-ma)	•	•	•	Nō-mā 23. You.
(Näng-mä-h	a) .	•	•	24. Of you.
Ņāng-ha	•	•	•	25. Your.

English.	Khongzāi (of Manipur).	Thādo (Núga Hills).	Sairang (Cachar Plains).
20. He	A-mā · ·	Hihu, Hichē, (hipā).	Āh-mā
27. Of him	A-mā(-thū)	Chē	Āh-mā-sikā, āh-mā-thu .
29. His	A-mā-ā	Chē	Āh-mā-tā · ·
29. They	A-mā-ho	Ho, (hitē-ho)	Āh-mā-ho-tā . • •
30. Of them	A-mā-ho(-thū) .	Te-ho	Āh-mā-ho-tā-sika, āh-mā- ho-tā-thu.
31. Their	A-mā-ho-ā · ·	Hiche-te-ho	Āh-mā-o-bā
32. Hand	Ka-khot	Khot, (khūt)	Khut · · ·
33. Foot	Ka-kēng.	. Ka-khin, (kēng) · ·	Keing
34. Nose	Ka-nā(k-)	. Nā-kui	Nāk · · ·
35. Eye	. Ka-mit	. Kā-mit	Mith
36. Mouth	Ka-kam	. Ka-kām-mu	Muh
37. Tooth	. Ka-hā	. На	. Hāh
38. Ear	Ka-bil	Ka-bil-kol	. Korh
39. Hair	. Ka-sam	. Sam	. Sāhm
40. Head	. Ka-lüchang	. Luchang	Luh
41. Tongue	. Ka-lei	. Lē, (lēi)	Lēih
42. Belly	Ka-woi	. Oi	. Oči, or dhil
43. Back	Ka-tüngtün	. Tongtū, (tǔntān) .	. Tungtu
44. Iron	. Thi	Thi · ·	. Thih
45. Gold	. Sanā	. (Sonā)	. Rankichē
46. Silver	. Dangkā, tangkā .	. Thi, (shāmchēng) .	. Dhānkā
47. Father	. Ка-ра	. Pā	Kā-pā
48. Mother	. Ka-nū	. Nu	. Kā-nuh . • •
49. Brother	. Ka-nāti	. Ke-ŭ-pā (elder), Ke-nāu- (younger).	-pā Sopih, kā-ū-pā (elder), kā nāu-pā (younger).
50. Sister	. Ditto	. Kc-ŭ-nu (elder), Ke-nāu- (younger).	
51. Man	. Pasal	. Mi	Mih · ·
52. Woman	. Nūmai	. Numē, (nūpi)	. Nuh-mēi

Kaki of C	acta	e (Can.,	s <b>n).</b>		Sign (Rominil). Light.
A-125 .	_	•	•		A a 23. He.
(Ā-mā-ha)	<b>)</b>			•	27. Of Lim.
Ā-mā .			-		Le. His.
Ā-mā-o	•	•			A-ma-to 29. They.
Ā-mā-ba			•	•	87. Of them.
Ā-mā-kas		•	•	•	U. Their.
Klint .	•	•	•	• ,	Khat
Keng	•	•	•	• .	Piong
Na	•	•	•	• ,	Nā
Mit	-			• ;	Mit
Mu	•	•	•	- ;	Kām 36. Mouth.
Hā	•	•	•	-	Hā 37. Tooth.
Kul	•	•		- ;	Bil
Sam	•	•	•	-	Sam
Lu	•	•	•	- :	Lā 40. Head.
Lēi	•	•	•	• 1	Lĉi, kam 41. Tongue.
Oē	-	•	•	-	Ngil, âm 42. Belly.
Tüngtün	-	•	•	•	Nung 43. Back.
					Chī, khī 44. Iron.
Sānā	•	•	•	•	Kham 45. Gold.
Dankā	•	•	•	•	Ngān 46. Silver.
(Nā-)pā	•	•	•	•	Pa 47. Father.
(Nā-)nū	•	•	•	•	Nū 48. Mother.
ΰ		•	•	•	Ŭ (elder); nāŭ (younger) . 49. Brother.
Ã.	•	•	•	•	Ū-nŭ (cliler), näŭ-nŭ 50. Sister. (younger).
Pasāl	•	•	•	•	Mi-hing, pasall 51. Man.
Nu-māi	-	•	-		. Nūmē

				Khongzāi (d	f Ma	nipur).		Thādo (Nága Hills).	Sairang (Cachar Plains).
53. Wife	•	•	•	A-ji .	•	•	•	Ka-zhi-nu, (ka-ji)	Kā-jih
54. Child	•	•	•	A-nātīsēn		•		Cha-pang	Nāh-u, i.e. nāu
55. Son	•	•	•	A-chā-pā		•	•	Chapang-pa, (chā-pā) .	Kā-chā
56. Daughter	٠.	•	•	A-cha-nū	•	•	•	Chapang nu, (chā-nung) .	Kā-chā-nuh
57. Slave	•	•	٠	Souk, sho	•	•	•	Sho	Kā-soh
58. Cultivato	r	•	•	Laŭ lhü mi, la	aŭ-bo	l-pā	•	Lo balhā	Loubola
59. Shepherd	•	•	•	Yām ching m	i.	•		*****	Běl-ri-kěl-ngākā
60. God	•	•	٠	Thilhā, Patēn	•	•	•	Pathe, (Pāthēn lūnjāi)	Pāthēin
61. Devil	•	•		Kāūsi (demon)	)	•	•	Tilbā	Thilah
<b>6</b> 2. Sun	•	•		Ni .	•	•	٠	Ni, nisha (nisā)	Nisāh
63. Moon	•	•		Lhā .	•	•	•	Lha-ta (lhā)	Flā-pā
64. Star	•	•		Āsi .	•	•	•	Āsi	Ahsih
55. Fire	•	•		Mēi .	•	•	•	Mei	Mēih
66. Water	•	•	·	Tūi ,	•	•	٠	Ti (tūi)	Tui
67. House	•	•	•	In	•	•	•	In	Ihn
68. Horse	•	•		Sakol .	•	•	•	Sakal (sakor)	Chākor
69. Cow	•	•		Bong .	•	•	٠	Bong (chilhat)	Chherāk-pi
70. Dog	•	•	•	Hui-chā .	•	•	•	Wi-chā	Ūi
71. Cat .	•	•	•	Mëng-chā	•	•	٠	Meng-chā (mēng-tē).	Mëng-të
72. Cock	•	•		Ä-chal .	•	•	-	A-chal	Āh
73. Duck	•	•	•	Atot .	•	•	-	Watowat	Bäh-to
74. Ass	•	•	•		•	•		Not known	Gadda
75. Camel	•	•	٠	Ŭŧ.	•	•	•	Ditto	Māh-kinkāng
76. Bird	•	•	•	Wa-chā .	•	•	•	Vā-chā	Bāh
77. Go .	•	•	٠	A-chē-tā	•	•	•	Cheye-tā (chē-tan)	Chi-thing
78. Eat .	•	•	•		•	• `	•	Ne-tha	Nöh-thäng
79. Sit .				A-taŭ-tă .				Thou-tha (tov-in)	Tou-thang

٠,

Kuki of Cachar (Campbell).					٤	Siyin (	Rundal	1).	English.		
Ji .	•	•	•	•	Jī, yī	•	•	•	•	53. Wife.	
Chā	•	•	•	•	Ta	•	•	•	-	54. Child.	
Chā-pā	•	•	•	-	Та-ра	•	•	•	-	55. Son.	
Chā-nu	•	•	•	•	Ta-nū	•	•	•		56. Daughter.	
Sa	•		•	-	In-tiang	g, sal		•		57. Slave.	
Loubalā	•	•	•	•						58. Cultivator.	
(Sil)	•	•	•	•			••••			59. Shepherd.	
Pā-thion	•	•	•	•			•••••			60. God.	
Thilā	•	•	•	•			•••••			61. Devil.	
Nica	•	•	•	•	Ni.	•	•	•	•	62. Sun.	
This	•	•	•	•	Tha	•	•	•	-	63. Moon.	
Āsi	•	•	•		A-shī	•	•	•		-64. Star.	
Mēi	•	•	•	-	Mē, mi	•	•	•	-	65. Fire.	
Tui	•	•	•	•	Tui	•	•	•	-	66. Water.	
In .	•	•	•		Īn .	-	•	-	-	67. House.	
Sā-k <b>ar</b>	•	•	•	•	Shipū	•	•	•	-	68. Horse.	
Sirāt	•	•	•	•	Khui	•	•	•	-	69. Cow.	
Ui.	•	•	•	•	Wi	•	•	•	•	70. Dog.	
Meng-te	•	•	•	•	Ngiản	•	•	•	•	71. Cat.	
Ä.	•	•			Ā-lui	•	•	•	-	72. Cook.	
Vā-ta	•	•	•	•	Ngūnpa	ì	•	•	-	73. Duck.	
		*** ***					•••••			74. Ass.	
		•••					*****			75. Camel.	
<b>V</b> ā	•	•	•	•	Wnchie	m,	•	•	•	76. Bird.	
Chin	•	•	•	•	Pai-o	•	•	•		∹∀7. Go.	
Něn		•	•	•	N <b>5-</b> 0	٠	•	•	•	78. Eat.	
Tou-vin		•	•		Т5-0	7	-	•	•	79. Sit.	

English.		Khongzāi (of Manipu	ır).	Thādo (Nága Hills).	Sairang (Cachar Plains).
80. Come	. ,	A-húng-tā .		Hungo (hong-tan) .	. Hong-in
81. Beat		A-wa-tā		Vo-tang-u (vo-tan) .	. Vo-thang
82. Stand .		A-ding-ë		Ding-tang	Ding-in
83. Die .		A-thi-tā • ·		Ti-ta	Āh-thi
84. Give .		ſ-pē-tā		Ē-pē-tang (ēpēn) .	. Kā-pēh
85. Run .		A-lhai-tā		Lhāi-tang	. Flā-jing
86. Up		Wān		Chunglam	. Āh-chūng-ā
87. Near .		A-nāi		Kekomma, näi-chā .	. Ih-hing-ā
88. Down .		Sang-sang .		Noilam	Noi-āh
89. Far		A-gam-lā .		A-gam-la	. Gām-lā
90. Before .		A-ma-sā		A-mā-sāng	. Mā-sang-ā
91. Behind .		A-nung-a .	• •	Ka-nung-sang (nünglam)	. Nung-a
92. Who .		Koi	• •	Koi	. Nāng (sio)
93. What .	• •	Iham		Iham	. Ih-hijam
94. Why .		I-dā-ā, i-bol-ā .		I-din-em	. lh-siëm
95. And .	.• •	Yong, le		Adang jhong	. Th
96. But .		Ditto		A-hi-lē	Āh-hi-bāng
97. If		Lē (a termination suffixed to the root of	always of verbs).	Ditto	. Bāhngin
98. Yes		Hoi .		Henghē (a-hi-nāi) .	. Oah
99. No	•	A-hi-poi		Kenunipu (a-om-poi)	. Ohoi
100. Alas .	•	O ka-nū ka-pū.	• •	Heishā	. Oheh
101. A father .	•	Ka-pā khat	• •	Ке-ра	. Khūt-kā-pā, or pā khūt .
102. Of a father	•	Ka-pā khat-ā .		Ке-ра	. Khāt pā-sikā, -thu
103. To a father	•	. Ka-pā khat-hēng	•	Ka-pa-hē	. Nā-pā hing-ā
104. From a father	•	. Ka-pā khat-höng-ā	•	Ka-pa-hengā	. Nā-pā hing-ā ā-hong .
105. Two fathers	•	. Ka-pā a-ni	•	Ka-pa-te-ni	Pā nih
106. Fathers .	•	. Ka-pā tam-pi	•	. Ka-pa-te-ho	. Kā-pā ngēi, or kā-pā ho :

Kuki of Cachar (Campbell).	Siyin (Rundall).	Ergiida.
Hang-in	Hom-pai-to	89. Come.
Chāk-in	Vatu	S1. Beat.
Ding-in	Ding-o	S2. Stand.
Thin	Thì-o	S3. Die.
E-pin	Pē-to	81. Give.
Kla-jia	Tai-o	85. Run,
Vān-chāng	Tungā	86. Up.
Ā-hing-ā · ·	A-nai	87. Near.
Nai	Nuē	S3. Down.
Gām-cheng	Khu-lā	89. Far.
Mā-chāng-a	Mai-yā	90. Before.
Nük-chäng .	A-nung-lam	91. Behind.
Kai-hām	Akwō	92. Who.
Iham	Bang	93. What.
I-dingninëm	A-bang-kam	94. Why.
Adang	. Lē	95. And.
Eē	. Tō-hī-young	96. But.
Chute	. Lē	97. If.
Uhm	. A-hī	98. Yes.
Ēcnēen	Hi-bō	99. No.
Āh-āh-āh	. Nū-ongē pa-ongē	100. Alas.
Nā-pā khāt . •	. Pā khat .	101. A father.
Nā-pā · · ·	. Ditto	102. Of a father.
Nā-pā hing-ā		103. To a father.
(Nā-pā hingā pādin)	. Pā khat pān	. 104. From a father
		. 105. Two fathers.
Nā-pā ni	. Pā nī · · ·	

		1	
English.	Khongzāi (of Manipur).	Thâdo (Nága Hills).	Sairang (Cachar Plains).
107. Of fathers	Ka-pā tampi-ā	Ka-pa-te-ho ,	Kā-pā ngēi sikā, or -thu .
108. To fathers	Ka-pā tampi-hēng	Ka-pa-hoi	Kā-pā ngēi hingā
109. From fathers	Ka-pā tampi-hēng-ā	Ka-pa-hoi-hengā	Kā-pā ngēi hingā ā-hong .
110. A daughter	Ka-cha-nü khat	Cha-pang-nu	Kā-chā-nuh khāt
111. Of a daughter	Ka-cha-nū khat-ā	Ditto	Kā-chā-nuh khāt sikā, or
112. To a daughter	Ka-cha-nü khat-hëng	Cha-pang-nu-hengā	Khat kā-chā-nuh hingā .
113. From a daughter .	Ka-cha-nū khat-hēng-ā .	Ditto	Khāt kā-chā-nuh hingā ā- hong.
114. Two daughters	Ka-cha-nū a-ni	Cha-pang-nu-te-ni	Kā-chā-nuh nih
115. Daughters	Ka-cha-nữ tampi	Cha-pang-nu-ho	Kā-chā-nuh ngēi, or ho .
116. Of daughters	Ka-cha-nū tampi-ā	Cha-pang-nu-ho hengā .	Kā-chā-nuh ngēi sikā, or thu.
117. To daughters	Ka-cha-nū tampi-hēng .	Ditto .	Kā-chā-nuh ngōi hingā .
118. From daughters .	Ka-cha-nū tampī-hēng-ā .	Ditto .	Kā-chā-nuh ngēi hingā ā- hong.
119. A good man	A-fa-tā pasal khat	Khat a-pā	Khāt mih ā-phā-jilēh .
120. Of a good man	A-fa-tü pasal khat-ü	Khat a-pā hengā	Khāt mih ā-phā-jilēh sikā,
121. To a good man	A-fa-tā pasal khat-hēng .	Ditto	Khāt mih ā-phā-jilēh hingā
122. From a good man	A-fa- ā pasal khat-hēng-ā	Ditto	Khāt mih ā-phā-jilēh hingā ā-hong,
123. Two good men	A-fa-tā pasal-ni	Ni s-pā	Nih mih ā-phā-jilēh
124. Good men	A-fa-tā pasal tampi	A-pā-ho	Mih-ho ä-phā-jilēh
125. Of good men	A-fa-tā pasal tampi-ā	A-pā-ho hengā	Mih-ho a-phā-jilēh thu .
126. To good men	A-fa-tā pasal tampi-hēng .	Ditto	Mih-ho ā-phā-jilōh hingā .
127. From good men ',	A-fa-tā pasal tampi-hēng-ā	Ditto	Mih-ho ā-phā-jilēh hingā
128. A good woman	A-fa-tā nāmai khat	Numei a-pā	Khāt nuh-mēi ā-phā-jilēh .
129. A bad boy	A-fa-lo pasal nēyaŭ-chā khat.	Chapang a-pa-lu	Khāt puchāl-chā mighilon .
130. Good women	A-fa-tā nūmai tampi	Numei a-pa-ho	Nuh-mēi-ho ā-phā-jilēh .
131. A bad girl	A-fa-lo nūmai nēyaūchā .	Chapang-nu a-pa-lu	Khāt nuh-mēi-chā mighilon
182. Good	A-fa-tā	A-pā (ā-phāi)	Ā-phā-jilch
133. Better	A-ni sāng-ā faiyo	Hichë a-pā	Ā-phā-dhomē
K-C. G -96			

Kuki of Cachar (Campbell).	Myin (Rundali).	English.
Na-pangaisi	P2 t3	107. Of fathers.
Nā pā ngai hingā		108. To fathers.
(Nă-pă ngai hingă pădin) .	*****	109. From fathers.
Chā-nū khūt	Tā-nū khat	110. A daughter.
Chā-nu	Ditto	111. Of a daughter.
Chā-nu hingā		112. To a daughter.
(Chā-nu hingā pādin) .		113. From a daughter.
Chā-nu ni	Tā-nū nī	114. Two daughters.
Chā-nu-ha	Tā-nū tē	115. Daughters.
Ditto	Ditto	116. Of daughters.
*****	*****	117. To daughters.
••••	*****	118. From daughters.
Pasāl khāt ā-fā	Mi-hin phā khat	119. A good man.
Pasil khāt ā-fā-pā chu .	Ditto	120. Of a good man.
Pasāl khāt ā-fā-pā hingā .	*****	121. To a good man.
(Pasāl khāt ā-fā-pā hingā pādin.)	···········	122. From a good man.
Pasal ni ā-fā	Mi-hīn phā nī	123. Two good men.
Pasal a-bonin a-fa	Mi-hin phā tē	124. Good men.
Ā-bonā pāsal āfā-ha	Ditto	125. Of good men.
		126. To good men.
Pasāl āfā-ha hingā padın .	••••	127. From good mea.
	· ·	128. A good woman.
Chā-pāng-pā khāt ā-fā-lon .	Patang shie khat	129. A bad boy.
Ā-fā nu-māi-ha ā-bonin	Nū-mē phā tē	130. Good women.
Chā-pāng-nu khāt ā-fā-lon	Nú-mē no shie khat	131. A bad girl.
Ā-fā	Phā	132. Good.
Haŭ pădin ăfăi	A-mi sang phi	133. Better.

English.				Khongzāi (of Manipur).	Thādo (Nága Hills).	Sairang (Cachar Plains).
134. Best .	•		•	Tampi sāng-ā faiyo	Hi-zhat-pi-la hiche a-pā .	Ā-phā-pēhnē
135. High .		,		A-sang-ē	A-sāng	Ā-sāng-ēh
136. Higher .	•			A-ni sāng-ā a-sāng-ē	Hiche sängnin ä-säng .	Ā-mā nehki ā-sāng-ēh
137. Highest .	•	ı		Tampi sāng-ā a-sāng-ē .	Abonchā sāngni ā-sāngi .	Ā-sāng-pēhnē
138. A horse .	•			Sakol a-chal khat	Sakol khāt	Khāt sākor chāl
139. A mare .	•		•	Sakol a-nū khat	Sakol a-nū	Khāt sākor pi
140. Horses .	•		•	Sakol a-chal tampi	Sakol-tē-ho	Sākor chāl-ho
141. Mares .	•		•	Sakol a-nā tampi	Sakol a-nu-ho	Sākor pi-ho
142. A bull .	•		•	Bong a-chal khat	Bâng chal	Khāt shērāk chāl
143. A cow .	•		•	Bong a-nū khat	Bâng a-nu	Khāt shērāk pi
144. Bulls .	•		•	Bong a-chal tampi	Bâng chal-ho	Shērāk chāl-ho
145. Cows .	٠.			Bong a-nū tampi	Bâng a-nu-ho	Shērāk pi-ho
146. A dog .	•	•	•	Hui a-chal khat	Ui-chā	Khāt uī chāl
147. A bitch .	•	•	•	Hui pi khat	Ui-chā a-nu	Khāt nī pi
148. Dogs .	•	•	•	Hui a-chal tampi	Ui-chā-ho	Ŭi chāl-ho
149. Bitches .	•	•	•	Hui pi tampi	Ui-chā a-nu-ho	Ŭi pi-ho
150. A he goat .		•	•	Kēl a-chal khat	Kel-chā a-chal	Khāt kēel-chāl
151. A female goa	t	•		Keis-nükhat	Keel-chā a-nu	Khāt kéel pi
152. Goats .		•	•	Kël tampi	Kcel-chā-ho	Kēel-ho
153. A male deer		•	•	Sangāi a-chal khat	Sha chal	Khāt sāhjuk chāl
154. A female de	er	•	•	Sangāi a-nū khat	Shā piu	Khāt sāhjuk pi
155. Deer .		•	•	Sangāi	Shā-ho	Sāhjuk
156. I am .		•	•	Kai ka-hē	Keyi ka-timi	Kêi kā-umēh
157. Thou art .		•	•	Nang na-hē	Nang na-umi	Nang na-umeh
158. He is .		•	•	A-mā a-hē	Hichē a-hi	Āh-mā ā-umēh
159. We are		•	,	Kai-ho ka-hē	Kê-ho ka-umi ,	Kēi-ho kā-umēh
160. You are		•		Nang-ho na-hē.	Nang-bo [n]a-timi	***

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Kuki of Ca. har (Campbell).	Siyin (Rundall).	English.
Ā-fā changnang pēne .	Phabil	134. Best.
Ā-chāng	Sāng .	135. High.
Ā-chāng-a	A-mā sāng sūng	136. Higher.
Ā-chāng changnang pêne	Sang-bil	137. Highest.
Sākar khāt	Shipu tal khat	13S. A horse.
Sākar khāt ā-nu	Shipû pui khat	139. A mare.
Sākar ā-bonin	Shipú tal të	140. Horses.
Sākar ā-nu ā-bonin	Shīpû pui tē	141. Mares.
Sirāt chāl khāt	Khui tal khat	142. A bull.
Sirāt à-nu khāt	Khui pui kht.t	143. A cow.
Sirāt chāl ā-bonin	Khui tal te	144. Bulis.
Sirāt ā-nu ā-bonin	Khui pui tā	145. Cows.
Ŭi khāt	Witalkhat	146. A dog.
Ŭi nu khāt	Wi pui khat	147. A bitch.
Üi ä-bonin	Witalte	148. Dogs.
Ŭi nu ä-bonin	Wi pui to	149. Bitches.
Kel chāl khāt	Kiel tal khat	.50. A he goat.
Kel ä-nu khāt	Kiel pui khat 1	51. A female goat.
	Kiel të 1	52. Goats.
Sāzu ā-chāl khāt 8	Sachohi tal khat 1	53. A male deer.
Sāsu ā-nu khāt	Sachchi pui khat 1.	54. A female deer.
Sazu a-bonin	Sachchi 1	55. Deer.
·····	Cē-mā ka-hi 1	56. I am.
	Jang-mā na-hi 1	57. Thou art.
Ā-mā i-um-ē	ı-mā a-hi 11	58. He is.
	Ko-mā ka-hi 1	59. We are.
Näng-ha nā-um-ē N	lo-mà na-hi	30. You are.

English.		Khongzāi (of Manipu	r).	Thado (Naga Huis).		Sairang (Cachar Plains).
161. They are	. A	A-mā-ho a-hē	•	Hichē-ho a-ûmi .	•	•••••
162. I was	. E	Kei ka-haiyē	•	Kei kā-umi	•	•••••
163. Thou wast	. 1	Nang na-haiyē .	•	Nang nā-umi	-	
164. He was	$\cdot  _{A}$	A-mā a-haiyē .		Hichë ä-umi	$\cdot$	*** ***
165. We were	. 1	Kei-ho ka-haiyē		Kei-ho kā-umi .	,	*****
166. You were	. 1	Nang-ho na-haiyê		Nang-ho ā-umi .	•	*****
167. They were		A-mā-ho a-haiyē		Hichē-ho ā-umi .	•	*****
168. Be	. ]	Ka-hē		Um-ta	•	
169. To be	. ]	Ka-hā		A-hi-ding a-hi-te	•	•••••
170. Being	. 1	Hing	•	****		
171. Having been .	•	5+4 +4+		Hiche a-hi-te	1	•••••
172. I may be	•	Kei hi-thai-nāng-ē	• . •	Këhihatning katë .		•••••
173. I shall be	•	Kei hi-nāng-ē .		Kē ke-hi		50.40d
174. I should be .	1	Ditto .		Kē ke-hilē a-pā .	1	*****
175. Beat	•	A-wa-tā	• :	Variang	•	*** ***
176. To beat		A-won-a-ding .	•	Vung-ka-ti	•	******
177. Beating	•	A-vo-in .		Vongë	•	
178. Having beaten .	•	Wong-le		A-vo-ta	•	•••••
179. I boat	•	Kein ka-wē .	•	Ken ka-voi	1	400744
180. Thou beatest .	•	Nang-in na-wē	•	Nang-in ne-voi	•	<b>007</b> 100
181. He beats	•	A-mān a-wē .	•	. Hichē a-voi	•	200 000
182. We beat	•	Kei-hon ka-wē	•	. Ke-hong vongë	-	*****
183. You beat	•	Nang-hon na-wē	•	. Nang-ho vongë .	•	941095
184. They beat	•	A-mā-hon a-wō	•	. Hi-te-ho a-voi .	•	aor 000
185. I bent (Past Tonse)		Kein ka-wa-të .	•	• •••••		oes ME
186. Thou beatest (1 Touse).			•	•	-	*****
187. He beat (Past Tens	e) .	A-mān a-wa-tō.	•	. ******		
KC. G100		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		<del></del>		·····

Kuki of Cacher (Cam	pbell).	Siyin (Rundall).	English.	
Ā-mā-haā-um-ē		A-mā-tē a-hi	161. They are.	
Kēi-jin kā-umēi		Kē-mā kā-ōm-tā-hi, or ōm- yō-hi.	162. I was.	
Nāng ņā-nm-in		•••••	163. Thou wast.	
Å-mä ä-um-in .		*****	164. He was.	
Kē-ha kā-um-ēi			165. We were.	
Näng-ha nä-um-in		******	166. You were.	
Å-må-ha å-um-in		•••••	167. They were.	
Ā-hi-je		От-5	168. Be.	
Ā-hi-te		Ōm	169. To be.	
Ā-hi-tāe.		******	170. Being.	
Ā-hi-jou-tāe .		Öm-ā	171. Having been.	
Kei hinange .			172. I may be.	
Kei-ma hing-kā-te	-	Kē-mā ka-ēm-tū-hi	173. I shall be.	
Kei hi-ding ka-hin	-	•••••	174. I should be.	
Chāk-in		Vā-tō	175. Beat.	
Ā-chā-to		∇ā (t)	176. To best,	
Å-chāk-in .		Vā-vāt	177. Besting.	
Ā-chā-nāi .		Vāt-ā	178. Having beaten.	
Kei-jin kā-chā .	• •	Ka-vāt-hi	179. I beat.	
Nang-in chā-in	• •	Na-vāt-hi	180. Thou beatest.	
A-mān ā-cha-iu	•	A-vāt-hi	181. He beats.	
Kē-han kā-chā-un	• •	• •••	182. We beat.	
Näng-han nä-chä-un	•	*** ***	183. You beat.	
Ā-mā-han ā-chā-un	• •	•••••	184. They beat.	
		Kā-vā-tā-hi	185. I beat (Past Tense).	
•		******	186. Thou beatest (Past Tense).	
			187. He beat (Past Tense).	

English.	Khongzāi (of Manipur).	Thādo (Nága Hills).	Sairang (Cachar Plains).
188. We beat (Past Tense).	Kei-hon ka-wa-të	******	
189. You beat (Past Tense)	Nang-hon na-wa-tē		
190. They beat (Past Tense)	A-mā-hon a-wa-tē	•••••	444 444
191. I am beating	Kein ka-wē	Ken ka-voi	*** 45*
192. I was beating	Kein wong-am-tē	Ken ka-va ä umgme .	******
193. I had beaten	Kein ka-wa-tē	Ken ka-voi-jhenge	940 Bas
194. I may beat	Kein wa-thai-nang-ē.	Ken ka-voi-tenä	100000
195. I shall beat	Kein wo-nāng-ē	Ken vong-ë	.400000
196. Thou wilt beat	Nang-in wo-nang-na-tē .	••••	•••••
197. He will beat	A-mān wo-nān-tē	*****	.*****
198. We shall beat	Kei-hön wo-näng-ë	*****	
199. You will beat	Nang-hōn wo-nāng-na-tē .	******	.•••••
200. They will beat	A-mā-hon wo-nān-tē.	******	******
201. I should best	Kein wo-nāng-ē	Ken ka-voi a-pā	•••
202. I am beaten	Kei-mā-ē wē	Keye ē voi	•••
203. I was beaten	Kei-mā-ē wē-tē , .	Kē ē voi-jhengē	*****
204. I shall be beaten .	Kei-mā-ē wō-a-ding a-hē	Kē ē vozhenge	p
205. I go	Kei ka-chē	Kē ke-chē	*** ••*
206. Thou goest	Nang na-chē	Nang che-tā	•••••
-	. A-mā a-chē	Hichē a-che-ta .	ao- oso
208. We go	. Kei-ho ka-chē		pec ***
	. Nang-ho na-chō	••••••	· 404389
210. They go	- A-mā-ho a-chē	*****	pa+ 900
211. I went	. Koi ka-chē-tāi	Ke ke-ohë	200 ***
212. Thon wentest .	. Nang na-chē-tūi	Nang nā-chē	204 1 <b>20</b>
213. He went	,	. Hichē a-che-tā	
214. We went	. Kei-ho kn-chō-tāi		
KC. G102			·

Kuki of Cachar (Campbell).	Siyin (Bundell).	English.				
	•••••	188. We beat (Past Tense).				
		189. You beat (Past Tense).				
•••••	•	190. They beat (Past Tenss).				
Kei-jin kā-chāk-ā ā-hi-jē .	•••••	191. I am beating.				
Kei-jin kā-chāk-ā-lē	Ka-vā-tē-hi	192. I was beating.				
Kei-jin kā-chāk-ā		193. I had beaten.				
Kei-jin cha-thāi-jing-ē .	•••••	194. I may beat.				
Kei-jin chā-ing-ē	Ka-vāt-tū-hī	195. I shall beat.				
*****	*****	196. Thou wilt beat.				
•••••	•••••	197. He will best.				
•••••	***	198. We shall beat.				
*****		199. You will beat,				
••••	*****	200. They will beat.				
Kei-jin kā-chā-ding ā-hain.	*****	201. I should beat.				
Kei-mā-ei chā-ei	****	202. I am beaten.				
Kei-ei chā-in ā-hin	*****	203. I was beaten.				
·····	***	204. I shall be beaten.				
Kei-mā chitāng-e	Kē-mā ka-pai-hi	205. I go.				
Näng-mä chitän	******	206. Thou goest.				
Å-mā chin	*** ***	207. He goes.				
••••		208. We go.				
*****		209. You go.				
	•••	210. They go.				
Kei-mā kā-chin ā-hi-je	Kē-mā ka-pai-tā-hi	211. I went.				
Nang-mā nā-chin ā-hi-je .	····	212. Thou wentest.				
Ā-mā ā-chin ā-hi-je	••••	213. He went.				
*** ***	••••	214. We went.				

. 🍑 English.	Khongzāi (of Manipur).	Thado (Nága Hills).	Sairang (Cachar Plaine).				
215. You went	Nang-ho na-chē-tāi	*****	******				
216. They went	A-mā-ho a-chē-tāi	#90 015	••••				
217. Go	Chētang	Che-tā					
218. Going	Chē-in	Chitang	••••				
219. Gone	Chē-tāvin	A-che	•••••				
220. What is your name?.	Na-min i-bi ham ?	Nang min ihang?	Na-min ih-ham?				
221. How old is this horse?	Sakol hi küm i-yā ham? .	Hichē sākol kūm izhā ham?	Sākor kum i-jā hi-tām ? .				
222. How far is it from here to Kashmir?	Hiwā pausān Kashmir rhūn i-chan hiyam ?	Hiya konin Kashmir i-chān ham ?	Hi-kaumā Kashmir i-chān lām?				
223. How many sons are there in your father's house?	Na-pāa-in-ā a-chā pasal iyā ūmam ?	Nang-på a-chā izhāt ham?	Nā-pā ihn-ā nāo i-jāh <b>ūm-</b> ām?'				
224. I have walked a long way to-day.	Kei tū-ni gamlapā ka-chē .	Ke tu-ning gham-chengpi hūmkāhi.	Tū-ning gām-lā-ta kā-chēi .				
225. The son of my uncle is married to his sister.	Ka-pa-ngā a-cha-pān a-nāū- nū yin a-nayē.	Kē-pa shopi cha-pā, hichē shopi-nu to ākichang.	Kā-pāngā nāo-in hi-chē-pā sar-nū giin ā-nēi-jēh.				
226. In the house is the saddle of the white horse.	Sakol akāng safo in-süngā ūmē.	Sakol kang phå in-a å-ume	Sākor kān sāpāl ihn-ā ā- um-ēh.				
227. Put the saddle upon his back.	A-düng-tün-ä safo koyo	Sakol phå hangkani	Sāpāl ā-chunghā koi-tā				
228. I have beaten his son with many stripes.	Kein a-mā a-cha-pā molin bawōpin ka-wōi.	Huchê-pa châ havo-in ke-vo	Kei-jin che-pā nāo-hi kā- oboh-ē (i.e. kā-wo-ē).				
229. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.	Hûicha mữolā a-mān sēl kaching-ē.	Hichē bong tengtāng a-chēlā.	Che-pā nāobin ching-lāng-ā sherak ngā.				
230. He is sitting on a horse under that tree.	Hūicha thingkēlā a-mā sakol toin a-ūmē.	Huchē ting noiyā sakol chunga ā-tou-a.	Che-pāhin thinbull noiah sākor chungā ā-choungē.				
231. His brother is taller than his sister.	A-nāŭ-nū sāng a-nāŭ-pā a-sāng-ē.	Amā sho-pi-nu sāngnin ā-sāng-ē.	U-pā sāngin u-nu-sāngin āh-mā ā-sāng-pēhnē.				
232. The price of that is two rupees and a half.	Chūchē man chēng-ni makhāi.	Hichē man cheng-ni makā.	Chē-māng cheng-nih lēh dāugkā-keh.				
233. My father lives in that small house.	In nëya <b>t ka-pë</b> a-tim-ë	Huchē in-neyaba ke-pa a-umē.	Hi-chē ihu nēu-a kā-pā ā- ūm-ēh.				
234. Give this rupee to him	Dangkā hi a-mā-gommā ai- pēn.	Dangka hichēhu ghapi (i.s. hichē hengā pin).	Hi-chē dānkā āh-mā pe- thāng.				
235. Take those rupees from him.	A-mā hēngā dangkā ga-līn	Dangka hichë hengua khan latë.	Che-pā hingā dānkā lā- thāng.				
236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes.	A-mā hawopin woin khāwin sūm-in.	Batain numo khây-in unkāntā.	Pāte tākin kāu-in-lang vo- thang.				
237. Draw water from the well.	Kūhā tūi ga-sokēn	Tih-hu-ā ti rakhaji	Tui khukā tui gu-thāl-thāng				
238. Walk before me	Ka-masang-a chēn	Ke masanga chetā	Chēi-mā (sio) sā-thāng .				
239. Whose boy comes behind you?	Na-nüng-ā koi pasal nēyaü- chā hūngam ?	Ke (sic) nung-sang-a koi chā hūngam ?	Nā-nung-sāngā kai nāo- hām ā-hong-ā?				
240. From whom did you buy that?	Nangin chūchē ko hēngā na-han-choham ?	_	Khai hengā nā-chohām? .				
241. From a shopkeeper of the village.	Kho hi-š timin tükān mi khat hengā ka-chok-hē.	Lukana ke-cho-a-hi	Kā-khoubā dukāna kā-cho ā-hi-jēh.				

Kuki of Cachar (Campbell).	Siyin (Rundall).	English.					
	***	215. You went.					
		216. They went.					
A-chi	Pai-o	217. Go.					
Å-chin-û-hi-je	Pa-pai	215. Going.					
Ā-chi-tei	, Pai-â	219. Gone.					
Nā-min i-ham?	Na-min akwō yim (or bāng yim)?	220. What is your name?					
Sākar kum i-jāt hi-jām? .		221. How old is this horse?					
Hi-kamā pādin Kashmir i- chan gām-lam?	Kashmir khwo hipan a- bangtan kuun mo?	222. How far is it from here to Kashmir?					
Nāng-mā nā-pā in-ā i-jāt chā-pāng-pā um-ām?	*****	223. How many sons are there in your father's house?					
Kei-mā tu-nin gam-cheng kā ki-choune (?).	po 000	224. I have walked a long way to-day.					
Kei-mā kā-pāngā chā-pā ā- mā chā-nu-ta ā-khi-cheng- ā.	*****	225. The son of my uncle is married to his sister.					
Sākar ā-ngon jin in-ā ā-um- nāc.	••••	226. In the house is the saddle of the white horse.					
Ā-mā-chang-ā jin kām-in .	*****	227. Put the saddle upon his back.					
Ā-mā chā-pā chu kei-mān kā-chā-iu ting pumin.	*****	223. I have beaten his son with many stripes.					
Ā-mān ching-lāng chung-ā si-rāt ā-ching-in.	••••	229. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.					
Ā-mā hi-che thingbul noi-a sā-kar chungā ā-tou-vin.	•••••	230. He is sitting on a horse under that tree.					
Ā-su-pi-nu sāng-in ā-su-pi- pā ā-chang-e.	•••••	231. His brother is taller than his sister.					
Ā-hi man-hi cheng-ni le a-ke man a-hi-jē.	*** ***	232. The price of that is two rupees and a half.					
Kā-pā hi-che in neu-cha ā- um-e.	Kē-mā pā in miashiē na sungā tiang-hi.	233. My father lives in that small house.					
Hi-che danka hi ā-mā chu pin.	******	234. Give this rupee to him.					
Hi-che danka ā-bonin ā-mā hingā lan.	490-40	235. Take those rapees from him.					
Ā-mā hi phā-tā-in chā-in, chute khāv-in kān-in.	*****	236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes.					
Tuipuma tui thäl-in .	*****	237. Draw water from the well.					
Kei-mā mā-chāngā chidain .	•••••	238. Walk before mc.					
Nang-ma nunga kai cha- pang hung-am?	*****	239. Whose boy comes be- hind you?					
Nang-in hi-che-hi ko hinga na chahisam ?	*****	240. From whom did you buy that?					
Hi-ohe koā dukāndār-pa hingā.	*****	241. From a shopkeeper of the village.					

### CENTRAL CHIN SUB-GROUP.

This sub-group comprises the following languages:-

Shunkla			sjr:ket	i hy	•	•		•	•					39,215
	Zah	20,	75	12	•									2,000
Lita .			••	"		•								23,450
	Lak		٠,	**		-	•	•						1,100
Lushōi (ir	aclu lii	g N	rinte)	spoke	n by	•		,						40,539
Banjāgī		•			•	•	•							500
Pānkhū	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•		800
											To	TAL	•	107,604

These languages are closely connected with the northern group, but have still greater affinity to the so-called Old Kuki dialects. The chief point of difference, when compared with Old Kuki, is the negative particle, which is lo in the Central languages as in Thado, but usually  $m\bar{a}k$  in Old Kuki. Pankhū is the dialect which is most closely connected with Old Kuki.

#### SHUNKLA OR TASHON.

The tribes generally called Tashons live in the Chin Hills to the south of the country inhabited by the Siyins and the Soktes. To the west they are bounded by the Lushai Hills and to the south by the Lai. Messrs. Carey and Tuck estimated their number in 1895 at 39,215. Their country is the most thickly populated in the Chin Hills. They include the two powerful communities of Zahao or Yahow and Wheno, which were formerly known as Pois, Poi-tē and Pai-tē. Poi is the Lushēi name for the Chins in general, and  $t\bar{e}$  is the plural suffix. The Tashons call themselves Shunkla, and under this name they are also known to the southern tribes. Shunkla is the name of a village in the southern part of their territory, and they think that their forefathers came out of a rock at Shunkla. Later on their capital was transferred to Klashun, and the name Tashon is the Burmese corruption of this word. Their chief village is now Falam, and the northern tribes call them Palam-te, inhabitants of Falam. They were constantly at war with the Hakas, and the raids of this latter tribe are supposed to have been the reason for their transferring their capital from Klashun to Falam. After that time they gradually extended their influence over their neighbours. Messrs. Carey and Tuck remark that the Tashon tribesmen do not claim one common progenitor. 'They are a community composed of aliens, who have been collected under one family by conquest, or more correctly by strategy.'

The following five divisions of the tribe are distinguished:—

- 1. The Shunkla proper.
- 3. The Tawyan.
- 2. The Yahow, or Zahao.
- 4. The Kweshin.

5. The Whench.

Of these the Zahaos will be dealt with below. The notes on the other clans are taken from Messrs. Carey and Tuck.

The Shunklas proper are now all dependent on the Falam chiefs and probably all of the same family. Their ancestors lived at Shunkla till about four generations ago when they moved to Klashun. This village was destroyed by the Hakas, and the Shunklas then founded Falam, their present capital.

The Tawyans are said to have no connection with the other tribes administered from Falam. They say themselves that they are Torrs, an independent tribe to the south of the Hakas. They became tributary to Falam by settling down in their territory. After a rebellion they were reduced to perpetual slavery, and they have to carry salt and rice from the plains of Burma to Falam.

We have no information as to the language of the Tawyans. It is probable that it is a southern dialect, different from that of the Shunklas.

The Kweshins seem to be a quite different tribe, and were probably left behind by some of the numerous tribes which have wandered north. They are supposed to be half-breeds of Burman and Kuki blood.

The Whenos are said to be Lushëis who were left behind when the Chins expelled this tribe from the hills. They are said to be identical with the Haulgnos or Hualgnos of the Lushai Hills, who are settled to the south of the Zahaos, and extend towards the west as far as Jaduna, their eastern and southern frontier coinciding with that of the North Lushai Hills. The Shunklas proper are thus the only true representatives of the Tashön tribe. They were disarmed in the season 1895-96.

#### AUTHORITIES-

ELLES, COLONEL E. R., -Military Report on the Chin-Lushai Country. Simla, 1893. Note on the Tashons on pp. 22 and ff.

CAREY, BERTRAM S., and H. N. TUCK,—The Chin Hills: A History of the People, our Dealings with them.
their Customs and Manners, and a Gazetteer of their Country. Vol. i, Rangoon, 1896. History
of the Tashon Tribe on pp. 141 and ff.

Scott, J. George, assisted by J. P. Hardiman,—Gazetteer of Upper Burma and the Shan States. Part I, Vol. i, Rangoon, 1900. Account of the Tashons on pp. 457 and f.

The chief authority among the Tashons is a council consisting of five chiefs. They do not derive their position from birth, but are chosen by the people. Everyone may become a member of the council, provided that he belongs to the Shunkla tribe.

#### ZAHAO OR YAHOW.

The Zahaos or Yahows are settled in the Chin Hills to the west of the Tashons. The number of their houses is stated to be 1,700. The names Zahao and Yahow are identical, z and y being interchangeable in most of the surrounding dialects. Colonel Elles states that they are also called Howhuls and Lyen-lyem, and they were formerly also known as Pois. In the Lushai Hills Zahao is returned as spoken by about 2,000 individuals to the south and west of Lungvel.

The Zahaos of the Chin Hills say that once upon a time the sun laid an egg which a Burmese woman picked up. From it their ancestors were produced. They were constantly at war with their neighbours, but defeated them with the assistance of the Falam chiefs. In return they agreed to pay tribute to Falam for ever. They are said to be distinct from the Shunklas.

I have no materials for deciding whether the Zahaos of the Lushai Hills speak the same dialect as those in the Chin Hills. The translation of the parable of the Prodigal Son which is printed below, and for which I am indebted to Major J. Shakespear, C.I.E., D.S.O., I.S.C., has come from the Lushai Hills. The word for 'man' used in this specimen is mi-zo, that is, 'a Zo-man,' and it is probable that the Zahaos, like the Lushëis and many of the Northern Chin tribes, call themselves Zo. The following remarks on Zahao grammar are entirely founded on the specimen. They are given with the utmost reserve, the more so because I have not succeeded in getting an interlinear translation prepared in the Lushai Hills. The Lushai clerk charged with the translation was only able to add the meaning of some words in the beginning of the specimen, so far as the words and the forms do not differ from Lushëi. I have therefore been under the necessity of supplying most of the translation myself, and this must be borne in mind in using the specimen.

**Pronunciation.**—Long vowels are not marked in the specimen. But it is probable that final vowels of words and syllables are long, just as they are in Lushēi. The signs  $\acute{a}$  and o are used for the same sound; thus,  $mi-z\acute{a}$  and mi-zo, man. An h after a vowel seems to denote the so-called abrupt tone. Compare Introduction, p. 4. But the writing is inconsistent. Thus, the same words are written  $\acute{a}h$  and  $\acute{a}$ ;  $\acute{a}$  and  $\acute{b}$ . The pronunciation of other vowels cannot always be stated with certainty. We find the same words written vua and vuia; ve and vei; i and ei. Concurrent vowels are sometimes contracted; thus, pa-in or pa-n, by the father. A euphonic v is inserted between o and a following vowel; thus, deo-v-in. After m an m is inserted before i in um-m-i, lived, was. The consonant k in pek, to give, is sometimes dropped. K seems to be interchangeable with k in thluk or thluk, completely. The k in the latter form marks the abrupt shortening of the sound. S and sh seem to be interchangeable; thus, sum and shum, goods.

Articles.—There are no articles. The numeral pa-khat, one, and indefinite pronouns may be used as a kind of indefinite article, while pronominal prefixes, demonstrative pronouns, and relative phrases supply the place of a definite article. Thus, mi-zo shi-mā, a certain man; a nao-ta-shān-in, his, i.e., the younger; chā no thao zet kha, cow young fat very that, the fatted calf; a-sum chu, his property that; lha tak-i a um lai-a, far very his being time-at, at the time when he was very far.

Nouns.—Gender.—There is only one suffix used to denote gender in the specimen. This is pa in fa-pa, child male, son; u-pa, elder brother. The word vok, pigs, is combined with the plural pronominal prefix; thus, vok-in an ei, the-pigs they ate.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. The plural is not marked when it appears from the context. The suffix of the plural seems to be le; thus, boih-le, servants; ka-hoi-le-i-nhena, my friends with. That is sometimes added; thus in-lhá-fa-le-tla, house-servants; zung-khi-le-tla, finger-rings.

Case.—The Nominative, the Accusative, and the Dative are not distinguished by suffixes. The Genitive is denoted by putting the stem, without any suffix, before the governing word; thus, ro ka chan-ding; property-of my share. But usually the suffix i is added; thus, van-i mi, the sky's man, the man of the sky. The same suffix is also used in Lai. I is also added to nouns before postpositions, such as nhen-a, with, to; man-a, on account of; rhang-a, for the sake of, these postpositions being originally substantives; thus, a-pa-i nhena, his father to; a-mhu-i mana, his-seeing on-account of, because he saw; a-ma-i rhanga, for his sake. The genitive relation may also be indicated by apposition. Thus, ka mhing na fa-pa-i vua, my name your son-of bearing, to bear the name of your son. The i added to fa-pa before the infinitive vua, to bear, also shows the near connection between the verbal noun and ordinary substantives.

The suffix in, denoting the agent, is added to the noun when it is the subject of a transitive verb. Thus, vok-in an ei, the pigs they ate. It is dropped, however, in the first clause before nei, had, where the singular pronominal prefix a shows that the subject is the noun mi-zo, a man, and not fa-pa pa-nhih, two sons.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions such as a, in, to; in, or i, in, to; nhen-a and nhen-i, with, to; rhang-a, for the sake of; man-a, on account of; par-a-thon, before, against, etc. The suffixes a and in or i form locatives and adverbial expressions; thus kut-a, hands-on; thim tak-in, joy great-in, joyfully; tha-tak-i, far very.

Adjectives.—Adjectives follow the noun they qualify, and case suffixes are added to them and not to the qualified noun. Thus, khá-lam lha tak-a, country far very-to. The suffix of the comparative is shán; thus, nao-ta shán, young more. An absolute superlative is formed by the addition of bik, most. Thus, tha bik, best.

Numerals.—The only numerals occurring in the specimen are pa-khat, one, and pa-nhih, two. Both are only used to qualify human beings, and pa is the generic prefix.

They follow the noun they qualify.

Pronouns.—The specimen contains the following Personal pronouns:—Singular,—

kei, ka, I.nang-ma, na, thou.a-ma, a-ni, a, he.ka, my.na, thy.a, his.ka-ta, mine.i-ta, thine.

Plural.-

kan, we. an, they.

The forms ka, I, kan, we; na, thou; a, he, an, they, are used as pronominal prefixes with verbs. See below. The suffix i may be added in the genitive; thus, nang-ma-i mit-mhu-in, thy eye-sight-in. Compare Nouns, above.

The following Demonstrative pronouns occur; hi, and hi — hi, this; chu, and chu — chu, and chui — chu, that; kha, that.

ZAHAC. 111

There is no Relative pronoun. The demonstrative pronouns are used as a kind of correlative; thus, ziang-mā kām vok-in an ei kha, whatever food the pigs they ate, that; chā no thao zet kha, cow young fat very that. Relative clauses are also formed by means of participles and verbal nouns. Thus, tha tak-i a um lai-a, far very he being time-at; na fa-pa na shum ei-thluk-tu, thy son thy property ate-all-who. In the last instance ei-thluk-tu is the noun of agency.

An Interrogative pronoun is ziang-ha, what, in chu ziang-ha shi-kei, that what may it be?

The following Indefinite pronouns occur:-

shi-má, a certain; ziang-má, whatever; ziang-lo, some; zo-mhan, anyone; ziang-mhan, anything. Thus, mi-zá-i nhen-a shi-má, man with a-certain, with a certain man; zo-mhan-in ziang-mhan an pek-shi-lo-r-i, anybody anything they gave not.

Verbs.—Verbs are conjugated in person and number by means of pronominal prefixes. The following occur: ka, I, kan, we; na, and i, thou; a, he, it, an, they. After zo-mhan, anyone, the plural prefix is used; thus, zo-mhan an pek-shi-lo-v-i, anyone they gave not. Pronominal prefixes are usually dropped before the imperative, and when the subject is an interrogative pronoun.

The suffix i, probably a verb substantive, is commonly added to the various tenses of the verb. Such forms may be considered as conjunctive participles and are used in most places except where there is a full stop. Instances are given below.

The row clone is freely used to denote present and past tenses. Thus, a tha, it good is; a nel, he had. The suffixes i, hi, and shi, all various forms of the verb substantive, may be added; thus, a-ti-i, he said; a-shi-hi, he is; an-pek-shi-lo-vi, they gave not. After hi the suffix teh is added in ka shi-lo-hi-teh, I am not. This teh is perhaps identical with the suffix of the past tense.

The suffixes of Past tenses are to or tak and a; thus, a fe-ta-i, he went; ka-ti-shual-tak, I sinned; an um-tlang-d-i, they to-be-began. The suffix to seems also to be used in the present tense in order to denote an established fact. Thus, tlak ka-shi-lo-teh, worthy I am not indeed. See above. A kind of Perfect is effected by the addition of the verb substantive to the principal verb. Thus, a rong-nung a shi-hi, he came alive it is, he has come alive again.

The suffix of the Future is kei; thus, ka tho-kei-i, I will arise; ka ti-kei, I will say. This tense is also used in interrogative sentences to denote what might be, just like the German future. Thus, chu ziany ha shi-kei, that, what is it? Compare the suffix ka which denotes the present and past times in Ngentë, Rāltē, Paitē, etc. Another suffix of the future seems to be ing in i-ku-shing, let us make merry. See Imperative, below.

The suffix of the *Imperative* is  $\hat{a}$ ,  $\hat{ah}$ , or o; thus,  $pe-\hat{a}$ , give; thah-o, kill you. A first person plural occurs in i-ku-shing, let us make merry.

The root alone is also used as an Infinitive or verbal noun. Thus ei-puar a duh-ement, to eat-his-fill he wished-much. This form is used as a substantive governing a genitive; thus, ka mhing hi na fa-pa-i vua tlak, my name this thy son-of bearing worthy, worthy to the bearing of my name of your son. Words such as ve-leh, when; lai-a, at the time, when, etc., may be added. Thus, lha tak-i a um lai-a, far very he being

time-at; him-tak-in a mhu-i man-a, safely his seeing on-account-of. These instances show how little our usual grammatical categories suit these languages.

The Infinitive of purpose seems to be formed by the suffix ding or ding-in; thus, vok râl-tla pe-ding-in, in order to give the pigs food; ei-ding, for eating, food. Ding means 'suitable, fitting' in Lai. It also occurs in l dm-ak-nak-ding, in order to make merry. Lâm, to rejoice; ak, perhaps corresponding to the Lai suffix ak which is used to form gerunds (thus Lai ding-ak, for drinking). Nak is used in Lai to form compound nouns (thus, thi-nak, something for killing, poison). The meaning of lam-ak-nak-ding, therefore, is perhaps 'in order to have something for rejoicing.' The Lai suffix nak is also used to form participles, and this use seems also to be found in Zahao, in ka-el-nak-um-shi-lo, I transgressing lived-not. Compare the suffix nak which forms verbal nouns in Hallam, Langrong, Mhar, etc.

A Participle used instead of the first of two connected imperatives is formed by adding the suffix la, to which a pronominal element seems to be prefixed. Only one instance occurs, where the pronominal element is o, denoting the second person plural. Thus, han-la-o-la, here bringing you. The pronominal element of the third person singular is perhaps she or se, in shi-kal-she-la, nevertheless, lit. being-even-that.

Conjunctive participles seem to be formed by adding the suffix i; thus a-tho-v-i a-pa-i nhen-a a fe-ta-i, he having arisen his father to he went. This suffix may be added to all tenses. See above. The suffix leh in tlak ka-shi-lo-leh, worthy I-being-not, since I am not worthy, seems to be used in a similar way. Compare Verbal nouns, above.

The suffix of the Adverbial participle is the locative suffix in; thus, nha tuan-in a va-tang-i, work doing he went and stayed.

A Noun of Agency is formed by means of the suffix tu; thus, ei-thluk-tu, a consumer. See Relative pronoun, above.

There is no Passive voice. Kan mhu-leh-ta a-shi-hi, by us seen again he is, means literally 'we saw him again it is.'

Compound verbs are formed by means of prefixes or by suffixing other words. The following prefixes occur:—

Hon, signifying motion upwards or towards; rak, signifying motion away and towards; va, signifying motion from. Thus hon-la, go and bring; rak-mhu, to get sight of; va-rel, go and tell. Causatives are formed by suffixing shak or tir; thus, thah-shak, to cause to kill; bun-tir, to cause to wear, to put on. The word thah, to kill, is itself a causative to thi, to die. The suffix seems to be at or ak. Compare Aimol thak, Thādo that, to kill. A similar form is fiat, to send, from fe, to go. Desideratives are formed by adding duh; thus lut-duh, to wish to enter. Other words suffixed in order to form compound verbs are: em-em, much, highly; leh, again; ngai-ngai, certainly, surely; reng, always; shal, again; tak, very; tlang, to begin; ve and vei, also; zik, to be about, etc. Two verbs may, of course, be combined in order to modify the meaning. Thus, rong, to come down; thleng, to arrive; rong-thleng, to come home, etc.

The Negative particle is lo, or shi-lo; thus, a lut-duh-lo-v-i, he to-enter wished not: an pek-shi-lo-v-i, they gave not.

The Interrogative particle is  $m\hat{a}$ ; thus, shi-lo-m\hat{a}, is-it not? Compare also the use of  $m\hat{a}$  in the formation of indefinite pronouns; thus, shi-m\hat{a}, a certain. Compare Latin nescioquis.

[No. 8.]

# TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

# KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

ZAHAO.

(LUSHAI HILLS.)

(Major J. Shakespear, C.I.E., D.S.O., I.S.C., 1900.)

Hi mi zo shi ma fa pa pa nhih a nei. A-nao-ta-shàn-in a pa-i nhen-a, This man a-certain sons two he-had. The-young-more-by his father to. ka chan-ding i pe-â,' a 'Ka pa, ti-i. Chu-leh a sum-le-tha an ' My father, goods-of my share you give,' he said. Thereupon his goods them pa-nhih-i nhen-a a shem-i. Ni bai-te-a a-nao-ta-shan-in sum a-za-ten a to he divided. Day narrow-in the-young-more-by goods two khâm-thluh-i khâ-lam lha-tak-a a fe-ta-i. Chuna-chun nuam-lu-tuk-in collected-completely-and country distant-very-to he went. There um-mi sum chu a lhao-ral-tir-ta-i. A shen-thluh-ve-leh he lived-and his goods that he lost-wasted-made. He spent-completely-when that khå-lam chu na-sa-deo-v-in an tam-ta-i ei-ding a lhâh-sham-i, Chu-leh chu country that exceedingly they hungered-and eat-for he lacked. Thereupon that khua-a mi-zâ-i nhen-a shi-mâ nha tuan-in a va-tang-i. Chu mi chu-n place village-in man with a-certain work doing he went-stayed. That man that-by pe-ding-in a rak-hål-i a fiat-i. vok rål-tla Ziang-mâ kâm vok-in pigs food give-in-order-to he asked-and he sent. Whatever food the-pigs they ei kha a-ni khal-in ei—puar a duh-em-em-i zo-mhan-in ziang-mhan an also eat-his-fill he wished-much-and any-one-by ate that he anything they A harh-leh-ve-leh, 'Ka pa-i nhen-i in-lhâ-fa-le-tla râl ei-hangpek-shi-lo-vi. He awoke-again-when, 'My father with house-servants food eat-finishtam-thân, kei shi-khâ hi-tâka ril-rong-in an ka thi-zik-ngai-Ι here belly-hunger-in I to-die-am-aboutnot have they many-also, even ka pa-i nhen-a ka va-rel-kei-i, "Ka Ka tho-kei-i pa. ngai-i. I arise-will-and my father I go-tell-will, "My father, sky-of tocertainly. mi par-a-thon nangma-i mit-mhu-in thil ka ti-shual-i, ka mhing hi eye-sight-in thing I did-wrong, my name this thy your man before pa-khat vek-in i ka shi-lo-hi-leh, na nhen-a in-lhâ-fa fa-pa-i vua tlak like being-not, thee with house-servant one you son to-bear worthy I pa-i nhen-a a fe-ta-i. tho-vi Chu-leh a tua-ve-âh", ka ti-kei'. make-also", I say-will'. Thereupon he arose-and his father to he went. tek-i a-i-thân a rak-mhu-i a zang-fah-i a pan Thereupon his father-by he saw-and he pitied-and he ran-and his-breast he joinedpa, van-i mi par-a-thân 'Ka nhen-a a fa-pa-in, A 'My father, sky-of man before hi: son-by, to and he kissed. Him.

nang-ma-i mit-mhu-in thil ka ti-shual-tak. Ka mhing na fa-pa-i eye-sight-in thing I did-wrong. Myname thy 80n tlak ka shi-lo-hi-teh,' a ti-i. vuia Shi-kal-se-la a pan a boih-le-inhen-a. to-bear worthy I am-not-indeed,' he said. Nevertheless his father-by his slaves bik hon-la-o-la Puan tha hon-shin-tir-o. A kut-a zung-khi-le-tla a His hands-on finger-rings-also his 'Cloth good most going-bringing-you on-put. ke-dam rak-bun-tir-o-la, châ no thao zet kha hon-la-o-la foot-soles-on-also foot-shoes on-putting-you, cow young fat very that going-bringing-you thah-o, lhim-tak-in i-ku-shing. Hi ka fa hi a thi, a hong-nung-shal a shi-hi. joyfully let-us-feast. This my son this he died, he came-alive-again he is. kill, mhu-le-à a shi,' a ti-i. ka Chu-le lhim-tak-in an 'umhe lost-was-and by-me seen-again he is,' he said. Thereupon joyfully they to-betlang-å-i.

began.

Chu-le fa-pa u-pa-shân lo In-a a um. rong-thlem-Then his 80n elder-more fields-in he was. Howse-to come-arrivetum-ri leh an lam thâm a thei-i. zik-a ziang-lo Chu-leh hoih some drum-sound and their dancing noise he heard. Thereupon slave about-being a shut-i. A nhen-a, 'Na 'Chu ziang-ha shi-kei?' a ti-i shi-mâ a ko-vi. some he called-and, 'That what is?" he said-and he asked. Him to. a rong-thleng-ta-i him-tak-in a mhu-i man-a na pa-in châ no younger-brother he came-arrived-and safely he saw because thy father-by cow young Chu-le thao zet kha a thah-i,' a ti-i. thin-a-vang-i a he said. Thereupon he became-angry-and house-to he fat very that he killed,' rong-dak-i a lem-i. lut-duh-lo-vi, pa Shi-kal-she-la a to-enter-wished-not-and, his father came-out-and he persuaded. Nevertheless his pa-i nhen-a, 'Thei-a, kum hi na nha ka tuan-i na thu shi-khâ ka el-nak-\*Listen, years these thy work I did-and thy word ever I disobeyingnhen-i lâm-âk-nak-ding i um-shi-lo-vi ka hoi-le-i me-te pekel-shi-lo. with rejoicing-for kidthou gavest-even-not. was-not-and my friends Chu-leh na fa-pa hi nâ-chi-zuar nhen-i na .shum ei-thluk-tu-lu Thereupon thy son this harlots with thy goods ate-up-who-completely he camefe-ve-leh a-ma-i rhang-a châ no thao zet kha na rak-thah-shak-vei-i,' a sake-for cow young fat very that thou to-kill-caused-also,' he hiswent-when a nhen-a, 'Ka fa-pa, ka-nhen-a na um-reng, shang-i. Chu-leh · ti-i 'My son, me-with thou art-always, said-and he answered. Thereupon him to, a-shi-lo-ma? Ka-ta i-piang i-ta a shi-hi. Lhim tak leh lâm tak-i Joy great and happiness great-in to-be it is-it-not? Mine allthine it i8. a-shi-lo-ma? hi thi a rong-nung a tha Hi nao This thy younger-brother this he dead-was he came-alive he is-it-not? aood-**is** kan mhu-leh-ta a shi-hi,' a ti-i. lhao-vi shi-hi, a is, he lost-was-and by-us seen-again he is,' he said.

#### LAI.

Several tribes call themselves Lai. This word is said to mean 'middle,' and the use of it as a tribal name is accounted for by the fact that the Lais are the central tribes in the Chin Hills. Their neighbours towards the north are the tribe which the Burmese call Tashons and the Lais Shunklas. To the south of the Lais we find the Zos. The Lais extend from the Burma frontier on the cast to the Lushai country on the west. The Burmese call them Baungshè, and under this name they have generally been known to us. This term is, however, a mere nickname applied to all the Chins who wear their hair in a knot over the forehead. It is derived from the Burmese paung, to put on, and shè, in front. Dialects of the Lai language are spoken by the surrounding tribes, and nearly all of them also understand the standard form of speech. This is also the case with the Tashons, whose own language is said not to be radically different.

The clans which call themselves Lai are Hakas, Tlantlangs (or Klang-klangs), Yokwas, Thettas, Kapis, and many of the southern villages. The Hakas and the Tlantlangs are universally recognised as Lais, and these two tribes contend that the other three have no right to the name, they being the descendants of a wild goat. The Hakas were formerly constantly at war with the Tashons, while the Tlantlangs made raids into Arrakan and Chittagong where they were known as Shendus. This latter name seems, however, to be applied to several different tribes. The vocabularies which have been published differ from each other and from standard Lai, but not more than is natural in the case of dialectic varieties. The Lusheis call the Lais, and other tribes who wear their hair in a knot upon the top of the head, Poi.

The Hakas maintain that they are the original inhabitants of the hills. Major Newland, who makes this statement, continues to say:—

'Their traditions trace them back to the time of the flood, when they sprung from the solitary couple who escaped the deluge of waters, by clinging to the top of the Rong Ktlang range, which is above Haka. Ever since then they have gone on increasing and multiplying and sending out off-shoots who have founded all the surrounding tribes and villages. Hence by right of descent the Hakas claim jurisdiction over all the rest.'

The Lais have no written literature, but a large number of national songs, called *lha*, are current among them. Major Newland has given some specimens in his grammar. He states that they are of two kinds, *thī lha*, funeral songs, and *nang lha*, which are sung on all other occasions. The village bard will celebrate all special events by a song composed for the occasion. Each song generally consists of one verse.

About 1,600 Lais, immigrants from the villages round Haka and Tlantlang, are settled in the Lungleh sub-division of the Lushai Hills where they are called Pois. The number of their houses is estimated at about 450, and they are said to speak the languages of the parent villages still. They extend from the eastern frontier of the Lushai Hills to the Koladyne river, to the north of Mal Sclai as far as Dopura. Messrs. Carey and Tuck have estimated the number of the Hakas, Tlantlangs, and Yokwas as follows:—

Yokwas	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		TAL	•	2,675
Tlantlangs							•							J
Hakas		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	14,250

To this total must be added the about 1,600 Lais in the Lungleh sub-division, and the Thettas, Kapis, and the other southern villages belonging to the Lais.

It is probable that different dialects are spoken among these tribes, but we are unable to make any definite statement. A full list of authorities has been given under the introductory remarks on Chins, above. Here I shall only mention the following books which give a fuller account of the Lais:—

- MACNABB, D. J. C.,—Hand-book of the Haka or Baungshe Dialect of the Chin Language. Rangoon, 1891.

  Reviewed by B. Houghton in the Indian Antiquary, Vol. xxi, 1892, pp. 123 and ff.
- CARMY, BERTRAM S., and H. N. Tuck,—The Chin Hills: A History of the People, our Dealings with them, their Customs and Manners, and a Gazetteer of their Country. Vol. i, Rangoon, 1896. History of the Lais on pp. 152 and ff.
- NEWLAND, SURGEON-MAJOR A. G. E.,—A Practical Hand-book of the Language of the Lais as spoken by the Hakas and other allied Tribes of the Chin Hill: (commonly the Baungshè Dialect). Rangoon, 1897. Contains a short grammar; a copious English-Lai and Lai-English dictionary; illustrative sentences; and numerous notes on the people and their customs.
- Scott, J. George, assisted by J. P. Hardiman,—Gazetteer of Upper Burma and the Shan States. Part I, Vol. i, Rangoon, 1900. Note on the Lais on pp. 458 and f.; Haka and Shonshe vocabularies on pp. 682 and ff.

I am indebted to Major A. G. E. Newland, I.M.S., for the translation of the Parable of the Prodigal Son in the dialect of Haka, printed below. The list of words has been compiled from Major Newland's Hand-book, which is also the foundation of the remarks on Lai grammar. The Hand-book itself must be consulted for further particulars. A list of words in the Shonshe dialect of Gangaw, which is closely connected with Lai, has been reprinted from the Upper Burma Gazetteer. It is contributed by Captain F. H. Elliott.

Pronunciation.—The system of transliteration used by Major Newland has been altered as follows, to bring it into line with that adopted for the survey. Instead of his  $\dot{a}$  (the a in 'age') I have given  $\bar{e}$ , instead of his u (the u in 'fun') I have given a; instead of his  $\ddot{u}$  (the u in 'duke') I have given  $y\ddot{u}$ ; instead of his e (the ea in 'ease') I have given  $\tilde{i}$ ; instead of his aw (the aw in 'saw') I have given  $\hat{a}$ ; instead of his ow (the ow in 'how') I have given au. He seems to use the sign ú (the u in 'full') for the long as well as the short u. I have written  $\tilde{u}$  throughout because I have no materials for distinguishing between the short and the long sounds. Major Newland seems to use er for the sound ö in the prefex pō which is used before numerals. Mr. Macnabb writes a, and I have written ö. It seems to be the case in Lai, as we know it to be in Southern Chin, that the pronunciation of vowels is not distinct. More especially, vowels which have lost their accentuation are apparently reduced to an indistinct sound, which I have denoted by a small above the line; thus,  $k^a$ -pa, my father. When a suffix beginning with a vowel is added to a word ending in a vowel, a cuphonic y may be inserted between them; thus, lamb-pī-y-ā, way-great-in, far off. With regard to consonants Lai has both f and r, and also th (the th in 'thin'), which are all wanting in Southern Chin. Lai and Southern Chin have kl where Lushei and connected languages have tl. The consonant g seems to be foreign to Lai as it is to Lushēi and connected languages. Aspirated letters are very common in Lai; thus, kh, ngh, th, dh, ph, lh, mh, nh, rh, and wh. R is said to have occasionally a soft sound. Major Newland transliterates this sound as rh. I have given rh. Final consonants are often very faintly pronounced, or modified; thus,  $th\bar{\imath}a$ , property, for  $th\bar{\imath}l$ ;  $s\bar{a}$ , forehead, for sal, etc. This indistinct pronunciation has been indicated by a dot under the consonant. Thus,  $sh\bar{a}l$ , a servant. A final vowel is often doubled before a suffix beginning with a vowel;  $\bar{e}$ -dk- $k\bar{e}$ , for  $\bar{e}$ -dk- $\bar{a}$ , eating for. In the same way the initial l of a suffix or postposition is doubled after a word ending in a vowel; thus, ba, ever, but ballo, never; a, his, but amma, he.

Prefixes and Suffixes.—There are several prefixes and suffixes used in the formation of words. Many of them will be found under nouns and verbs below. Others are at the same time in use as independent words. Thus,—the suffix  $n\bar{a}k$ , which forms nouns from verbs; e.g.,  $th\bar{\imath}-n\bar{\alpha}k$ , poison, from  $th\bar{\imath}$ , to die;  $it-n\bar{\alpha}k$ , bed, from it, to sleep.  $N\bar{a}k$  is also used as a postposition with the meaning 'by way of,' 'for the purpose of'; e.g.,  $sap-p\bar{o}$   $nakk\bar{a}$ , by the way of chaff, in jest.  $N\bar{a}k-in$  is also the sign of comparison; thus,  $nang-m\bar{\imath}$   $n\bar{a}k-in$  amma a shan  $d\bar{e}y\bar{\imath}$ , thee than (lit., thy direction from, compared with thee) he high more, he is higher than thou.

A very common prefix is a. It is used to form nouns from verbs and to form adjectives. Thus,  $a-k\bar{u}$ , cough  $(k\bar{u})$ , to cough);  $a-l\bar{u}ng$ , shining. This a is probably identical with the Burmese prefix a. In most cases, however, the prefix a is the possessive pronoun or pronominal prefix of the third person singular. This is clearly the case when verbs are derived from compound nouns by inserting a between the two components. Thus,  $tin-h\bar{u}n$ , liver-opening, anger;  $k^o-tin\ a\ h\bar{u}n$ , my liver it opens, I get angry.

Articles.—There are no articles. The numeral po-kat, one, is used as an indefinite article, and pronominal prefixes, demonstrative pronouns, and relative clauses supply the place of a definite article.

Nouns.—Gender is only apparent in the case of animate beings. It is sometimes distinguished by using different words; thus, pa, father;  $n\bar{u}$ , mother:  $p\bar{u}$ , grandfather;  $p\bar{\imath}$ , grandmother. Pa and  $n\bar{u}$  are the commonest words used to distinguish gender. Thus, pa  $\underline{th}\bar{e}$ , male being young, boy;  $n\bar{u}$   $\underline{th}\bar{e}$ , female being young, girl. In most cases pa and  $n\bar{u}$  are used as suffixes. Thus,  $m\bar{\imath}-pa$ , human being male, man;  $m\bar{\imath}-n\bar{u}$ , woman:  $v\bar{\imath}-r\bar{\imath}ng-pa$ , a gander;  $v\bar{\imath}-r\bar{\imath}ng-n\bar{u}$ , a goose. In the case of animals there are besides several other suffixes. Thus, sal, male, and  $p\bar{\imath}$ , female; e.g.,  $s\bar{\imath}k-k\bar{\imath}$  sal, a male deer;  $s\bar{\imath}k-k\bar{\imath}$   $p\bar{\imath}$ , a female deer:  $lh\bar{\imath}$ , male, and  $p\bar{\imath}$ , female; e.g.,  $arr-lh\bar{\imath}$  and  $arr-lh\bar{\imath}$  kong, a cock;  $arr-p\bar{\imath}$ , a hen: tao, male, and  $p\bar{\imath}$ , female; e.g., vok-tao, a pig;  $vok-p\bar{\imath}$ , a sow:  $th\bar{\imath}u$ , male, and  $p\bar{\imath}$ , female; e.g., vok-tao, a pig;  $vok-p\bar{\imath}$ , a sow:  $th\bar{\imath}u$ , male, and thoi, female; e.g.,  $t\bar{\imath}-kong$ , a male mithan;  $t\bar{\imath}$  thoi, a female mithan.

Number is not marked when it appears from the context; thus,  $rang\ n\bar{\imath}$ , two horses. In the specimen, however, we find fa-pa- $rw\bar{e}\ p\bar{o}$ - $n\bar{\imath}$ , sons two. When it is necessary to denote the plural some word meaning 'great,' 'many,' 'multitude,' is added. Major Newland mentions the following:— $p\bar{\imath}$ , great;  $th\bar{\imath}um$ , plenty; and  $rw\bar{e}l$ , which I identify with Lushēi rual, a herd, a flock. Thus,  $Haka\ p\bar{\imath}$ , Haka people;  $m\bar{\imath}\ th\bar{\imath}um$ , people many;  $sh\bar{a}l\ rw\bar{e}$ , slaves. We may add  $s\hat{a}$ - $l\bar{e}$ - $r\bar{\imath}$ , goods-and-more, goods; compare thil- $l\bar{e}$ -salpha, chattels-and-goods, property.

Case.—The Nominative and the Accusative do not take any suffix. The subject of a transitive verb is distinguished by adding the suffix  $n\bar{e}$ , denoting the agent; thus, a-pa- $n\bar{e}$  amma an  $z\bar{o}$ , his father him he saw. Sometimes this suffix is dropped. Thus, a-pa an chim, his father he said. The verb  $ng\bar{e}$ , to have got, to possess, seems to be used as an intransitive verb. The Genitive is expressed by simply putting the governed before the

governing noun; thus, ko lhāt  $p\bar{\imath}$  kwa, country far very-of village, a village in a very distant country; vok  $r\hat{a}l$ , pigs' food. The Vocative is marked by the addition of some interjection; thus,  $m\bar{o}$   $k^*-n\bar{u}$ , O my mother. In the specimen the imperative  $th\bar{e}$ -o, hear, is added to the noun, thus,  $k^*-pa$   $th\bar{e}$ 0, my father hear, O my father. Other relations are expressed by means of postpositions: Such are: $-\bar{a}$ , in, before, to;  $ch\bar{u}nn\bar{a}$ , into;  $h\bar{e}$ , in, with, by means of; in, in, into, with, at, from; lak, till;  $leng-\bar{a}$ , out of;  $nh\bar{u}-\bar{a}$ , on the back of, after; sa, for;  $sh\bar{\iota}na$ , to, with, etc.

Adjectives.—Adjectives usually follow, but occasionally also precede, the noun they qualify. The position before the noun seems to be regular in the superlative degree. The suffix of comparison is  $n\bar{a}k$ -in; the comparative degree is marked by adding  $d\bar{e}y\bar{u}$ ; and the superlative by adding  $by\bar{\iota}k$  or  $ch\bar{\iota}n$ , very, to the positive. Thus, nang-ma  $n\bar{a}k$ -in amma a-shan- $d\bar{e}y\bar{u}$ , thee than he tall-more, he is taller than thou; nyang- $by\bar{\iota}k$ , youngest; a-ta  $ch\bar{\iota}n$  pwen, the very best cloth. Instead of  $n\bar{a}k$ -in we also find  $ch\bar{u}$ -in and  $l\bar{e}$ ; thus, nang-ma  $ch\bar{u}$ -in a-shan- $d\bar{e}y\bar{u}$ , he is taller than thou;  $sh\bar{\iota}ar$  sa  $l\bar{e}$  vok sa a-thao- $d\bar{e}y\bar{u}$ , pork is fatter than beef.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. They follow the word they qualify. They seem to be generally preceded by the generic prefix  $p\ddot{o}$ ; thus,  $m\bar{\imath}-pa$   $p\ddot{o}-kat$ , one man. Other generic prefixes are  $p\bar{u}m$ , which is used for round things, and  $p\bar{o}rr$ , used for loads or bundles. Thus,  $mai\ p\bar{u}m-kat$ , one pumpkin;  $\underline{thing}\ p\bar{o}rr-kat$ , one load of wood. Sometimes the noun itself, or a part of it, is repeated as a generic prefix. Thus,  $rang\ rang-kat$ , one horse;  $sh\bar{a}l\ sh\bar{a}-kat$ , one slave  $(sh\bar{a}l\ pa\ p\bar{o}-kat\ in$  the specimen);  $z\acute{a}-p\bar{\imath}\ z\acute{a}-kat$ , one cow;  $s\bar{\imath}-z\acute{a}\ z\acute{a}-kat$ , one cat. There are no real ordinals. Ma-sa-ka,  $ma-sa-k\bar{u}n$ , and  $a-t\underline{h}\bar{e}r-t\underline{h}\bar{e}$ , mean 'the first,' and a-lai and  $a-zu\bar{e}l-l\bar{e}$ , the second.

Pronouns.—The following are the Personal pronouns:—Singular,—

kē-ma, kē, I.nang·ma, nang, thou.kē-ma, kan, kā,nang·ma, nang, nan, nā,k\*, my.n\*, thy.kē-ma-ī, kē·manang-ma-ī, nang-ma sa,sa, mino.thine.

amma, he, she, it.
amma, an, a, his, her, its.

amma-ī, amma sa, his, hers, its.

I lural,—

kan-nī, we. nan-nī, you. an-nī, they.

The short forms are also used as oblique cases; thus,  $kan\ p\bar{e}k-ko$ , give me;  $n^*-k^*-\underline{thin}$ -fon-lo, thou-me-gavest-also-not. The corresponding forms in the plural are kan, our; nan, your; and an, their. Compare Pronominal prefixes with verbs, below. The ordinary case suffixes and postpositions may be added to the personal pronouns; thus,  $amma\cdot n\bar{e}$  an  $\underline{tha}$ , he said;  $nang\cdot ma\ sh\bar{e}na$ , with thee.

The following are the Demonstrative pronouns:  $-h\bar{\imath}$ , this;  $h\bar{\imath}$ - $hc\bar{\imath}$ , these:  $kh\bar{\imath}$ , that;  $kh\bar{\imath}$ - $hc\bar{\imath}$ , those;  $ch\bar{\imath}$ , that. Thus,  $h\bar{\imath}$  pa  $h\bar{\imath}$ , this man;  $h\bar{\imath}$ - $hc\bar{\imath}$   $h\bar{\imath}$   $z\bar{e}$ -da  $sh\bar{\imath}$ , what are these?  $k\bar{\imath}$  inn  $k\bar{\imath}$ , that house.  $Ch\bar{\imath}$  is used as an emphasising particle and as a correlative. Thus, a-pa  $ch\bar{\imath}$   $sh\bar{\imath}$ - $rw\bar{e}$   $h\bar{e}$  an chim, but his father the-servants to he said;  $k\bar{e}$   $ch\bar{\imath}$ , I myself; nang-ma  $ch\bar{\imath}$ -in am-ma  $d\bar{a}$ - $d\bar{e}y\bar{\imath}$ , thee from he good-looking-more, he looks better than thou;  $n\bar{\imath}$   $z\bar{a}n$   $n^*$ - $p\bar{c}k$   $ch\bar{\imath}$  sa, yesterday thou gavest, that letter; the letter which thou gavest me yesterday. A- $ch\bar{\imath}$ n, that-in, is used as a conjunction with the meaning 'if.' Thus, n-du-lai u- $ch\bar{\imath}$ n  $h\bar{e}$ - $l\bar{\imath}$ k, thou wishest that-being take, take it if thou wishest.

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There are no **Relative pronouns.** Relative participles and the noun of agency are used instead, and the demonstrative pronoun  $ch\bar{u}$  may be used as a kind of correlative. Thus,  $a-th\bar{a}t$   $m\bar{\imath}$ , the man who was murdered;  $a-z\bar{a}k$   $m\bar{\imath}$ , purchased things;  $a-m\bar{u}-th\bar{u}$ , the man who saw, a witness;  $k\bar{e}-ma$   $k^*-ng\bar{e}$   $th\bar{i}l-l\bar{e}-s\bar{a}$ , I having property, the property which I have;  $n\bar{\imath}$   $z\bar{a}n$   $n^*-k^*-p\bar{e}k-n\bar{a}k$   $s\bar{\imath}$   $k^*-ding-sang$ , yesterday thee-by-me-to-given medicine I drank, I drank the medicine thou gavest me yesterday;  $k^*-fa$   $a-th\bar{\imath}-rva$   $k^*-th\bar{\imath}$   $ch\bar{\imath}$   $a-n\bar{\imath}ng-t\bar{a}n$ , my son he-is-dead I-said that he-revived-again, my son whom I thought dead he is alive again.

Interrogative Pronouns.—A-ho-da, who? koi-da, which?  $z\bar{e}$ -da, what? Thus, a-ho-da  $sh\bar{\imath}$ , who is that?  $h\bar{\imath}$ -by $\bar{e}$   $z\bar{e}$ -da  $sh\bar{\imath}$ , this-matter what is? What is the matter? koi kva  $m\bar{\imath}$  da, of which village (are you) inhabitants?

Indefinite pronouns.—A- $z\bar{e}$ , a-ho, any; a-ho- $m\bar{\imath}$ , anybody;  $z\bar{e}$ - $z\bar{o}ng$ ,  $z\bar{e}$ -man, anything, something; a-tim, some, etc.

Verbs.—Verbs are conjugated in person and number by means of pronominal prefixes. The following occur:—kan,  $k\bar{a}$ , or  $k^*$ , I; kan, we: nan,  $n\bar{a}$  or  $n^*$ , thou; nan, you: an or a, he, she, it; an, they. The shorter forms  $k^*$ , n, and a, are generally used in common conversation. When more than one pronoun is prefixed to the verb, the pronoun of the first person always immediately precedes the verb, those of the second and third persons being prefixed to it. Thus,  $z\bar{e}$ -tik-ka  $n^*-k^*$ - $shw\bar{e}l$ -bal-lo, any-time thee-I-offended-never;  $r\bar{u}l$ - $n\bar{e}$  a- $k^*$ - $ch\bar{u}k$ , a snake he bit me. In the last instance the suffix  $n\bar{e}$  marks the subject. But in many cases the context alone shows which pronoun represents the subject, and which the object, the fuller forms of the personal pronouns being generally omitted before the short ones. Thus,  $n^*$ - $k^*$ -chim may mean 'I said to you,' and 'you said to me.' The pronominal prefixes denoting the subject are dropped before an imperative, and when the subject is an interrogative pronoun, but also occasionally elsewhere.

The root alone without any suffix is freely used to denote present and past time; thus,  $k\bar{e}$ -ma  $k^a$ -ding, I drink; a-ng $\bar{e}$ , he had. A suffix ai or  $\bar{e}$  is sometimes added, apparently without changing the meaning; thus,  $k^a$ - $t\bar{i}$ -ai, I am afraid; a- $p\bar{e}m$ -ai, he migrated;  $k^a$ - $tw\bar{i}$ n-len- $k\dot{o}$ - $\bar{e}$ , I did always.

A Present definite seems to be formed by adding the suffix leo; thus,  $k^*$ -ding-leo, I am drinking; an boi-leo- $\bar{e}$ , he is drinking. The same form is also used as an Imperfect; thus,  $k^*$ -ding-leo- $\bar{e}$ , I was drinking.

The suffix of the **Past time** is sang, which corresponds to Tibetan song; thus, keding-sang, I drank. The same suffix is usually added to adjectives when they perform the function of a verb; thus, a-zā-sang, it is enough. Compare also Imperative, below. In one place we find ma-sa, formerly, prefixed to a tense ending in sang in order to emphasise that the action of the verb belongs to the past; thus, ma-sa an thī-sang-ē, formerly he died, he was dead. The ē in thī-sang-ē does not seem to add anything to the meaning. Compare the remarks above. Major Newland mentions several particles which are added to the verb in the past tense in order to emphasise. Some of them will be mentioned with compound verbs below, and none of them seems to be a real suffix of the past tense.

The suffix of the Future is lai; thus, k'-kal-lai, I will go; a-shī-ding lai-lo, it-to-be-proper-in-future-not, it will not be proper any more. The suffix nga is often combined with lai; thus, tai-twīn k'-ka-nga-lai, to-morrow I will go; a-lūt-nga-lai-lo, he would not

enter. This nga seems, however, only to emphasise and is also used to express completion of action; thus,  $an-p\bar{e}k-nga$ , he has given.

The root alone, without any suffix, may be used as an Imperative. Thus,  $rh\bar{o}l$ -thar, cause him to put on. A prefix  $v^*$  is apparently used to form imperatives; thus  $v^*$ -ka, go. Major Newland mentions the following suffixes of the imperative:—o, Ro, lo,  $k\bar{u}n$ , pyak, thua, and, as polite forms,  $h\bar{e}in$ , ngath, and  $sh\bar{e}$  (ko- $sh\bar{e}$ ,  $r\bar{e}$ - $sh\bar{e}$ ). Thus,  $th\bar{e}$ -o, hear;  $p\bar{e}k$ -ko, give; ding-lo, drink;  $p\bar{e}$ - $k\bar{u}n$ , give;  $h\bar{a}$ -pyak, ask him;  $\bar{e}$ -thar-thua, cause him to put on;  $h\bar{e}$ - $sh\bar{r}$ - $v\bar{e}$ - $h\bar{e}in$ , please make me also (your servant); ding-ngath, please drink;  $\bar{u}m$ -ko- $sh\bar{e}$ , please wait, etc. The form ending in ko- $sh\bar{e}$  is also used as an imperative of the third person; thus ka-ko- $sh\bar{e}$ , let-him-go. The suffix sang is also used in the imperative, sometimes together with a prefix kan; thus,  $m\bar{e}$  kan-thik-sang, make the fire. The first person plural seems to be formed by prefixing in and suffixing  $l\bar{e}n$ ; thus, kan in- $\bar{e}$ - $l\bar{e}n$ , let us eat. This form is probably a future. Most of, or perhaps all, the suffixes mentioned above are certainly independent words, and the forms given as imperatives are really compound verbs, no suffix being added. The suffix thua is, for instance, probably identical with the verb thua, to do. But in other cases the real meaning of the suffix is not apparent.

The suffix of the Negative imperative is lha; thus, ding-nga-lha, do not drink.

Postpositions are freely added to verbal nouns, and also to other verbal forms. Thus,  $k\bar{e}$ -ma  $h\bar{e}$   $n^{e}$ - $k\bar{a}l$ -la tanka kan  $p\bar{e}k$ -lai, me with your-going-in money I give will, if you go with me I will reward you; a-dam-in, his-safe-being-in, safely; a- $s\acute{a}$  a- $d\bar{i}$ -lak a- $lh\bar{o}$ - $d\bar{i}$ -ai-in, his goods the-end-till his-waste-finishing-in, when he had wasted his property to the last; a- $l\bar{u}ng$  a- $f\bar{e}im$ - $t\bar{a}n$ -in, his mind its-wise-again-becoming-in, when his mind became sound again; a-kal-in  $h\bar{u}n$ -chim, his-going-in come-and-tell, come and tell me when he goes;  $n^{a}$ -kal-lai-in, your-going-future-in, when you will go. All these forms may also be considered as participles.

An Adverbial participle is formed by adding ling-mang. Ling perhaps corresponds to the suffix lang in Lushēi and connected languages, and mang has also the meaning 'used to,' 'inclined to'; compare Lushēi mang, very, much. It seems to be used to intensify the meaning. Thus,  $k^a$ -kal-ling-mang  $k^a$ -mū, I going along found it;  $k^a$ -ril-ling-mang  $k^a$ -hūn, constantly falling I came down; lamb- $p\bar{\imath}$ -y- $\bar{a}$  a-ra-ling-mang chū a-pa-nē amma an zō, distance-great-at he-coming his father he saw him, when he was still far off, his father saw him. In other places this form has the force of a Conjunctive participle; thus, an-klīk-ling-mang a-fa-hōng a-kūp, he running his-son's-neck he-embraced,

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The root alone is also used as a conjunctive participle; thus,  $\underline{tha}$  kan  $p\bar{e}k$ -ko, dividing me give; tai- $\underline{thorr}$   $\bar{e}$   $k^a$ - $h\bar{u}n$ -lai, breakfast eaten-having I-come-will, I will eat my breakfast and come;  $k^a$ - $\underline{thau}$ -ko  $k^a$ -pa  $sh\bar{n}na$   $k^a$ -kal-lai, I arising my-father to I-go-will. The suffix pa is used in a similar way; thus,  $k^a$ - $h\bar{u}n$ -pa  $k^a$ - $m\bar{u}$ , having come up I saw.

LAI.

The root alone, or with the suffixes mi, and in past time  $n\bar{a}k$ , is used as a **Relative** participle. See Relative pronouns, above.

Noun of agency.—The following suffixes occur: pa,  $th\bar{u}$ , and tiam; thus, rang- $ch\bar{t}h$ -pa, horse-riding-man, a rider; ra- $k\bar{a}p$ - $th\bar{u}$ , he who shoots the enemy, a soldier; in-shak-tiam, house-to-make-able, a builder, a carpenter. The suffix pa is identical with the Tibetan article pa.

There is no Passive voice. Instead of 'I was struck by him,' we must say 'he struck me,' amma-nē a-k\*-vēl; thus, nang-ma-nē k\*-chim, by-you my-saying took place, I was told by you; amma-nē a-tin a-hūn-len-ko, by-him his liver it opened, he opened his liver, got angry.

Compound verbs are freely formed. In many cases compound nouns are changed into verbs by inserting an a between the two components. Thus, lung-ngan, vanity. pride; ka-lung-a-ngen, I am haughty, lit. my mind it becomes big. These are no true compound verbs. Such are formed by means of prefixes and by adding other words modifying the sense. The prefix he seems to mean motion towards. It is often used with the imperative; thus, hē-chim, go and tell; hē-lāk, take it. The prefix in is often used with the future; thus, kan in-pēk-tai, I will give you; kan in-ē-lān, let us eat. But it also occurs with other tenses; thus, an in-lam-ko, they made merry; a-lung in-rwa, he said to himself. It seems to have a reflexive force; compare Lushēi in. Rak seems to mean motion towards; thus, rak-pū, to bring. It is often prefixed to the imperative. Thus, rak-kallo, go; rak-chim-lo, tell (him); etc. V, and va seem to be prefixed in order to add emphasis to the verb; thus, ral no-vo-lam-thak-ma, have you eaten up your food; v:-ka, go; a-va-ding-sang, he has drunk it up. Vūn or vūng is also said to express emphasis. As a verb vūng means 'to go,' 'to depart.' And as a prefix it therefore perhaps means motion. Thus, k\*-vūn-chim-dwok-lai, I will go and tell him quickly; vũn-pē, give; vũng-pũ, go and bring.

a-ta-ko-da-ko, why, it is good.  $P\bar{e}k$ , to give, and pyak are sometimes added, apparently only in order to add emphasis.  $P\bar{\imath}$ , together, implies collective action.  $R\bar{\imath}$  means 'more,' 'yet.' Rwa, to believe, is added to show that the action of the verb only takes place in the imagination of the speaker; thus,  $a-t\bar{h}\bar{\imath}-rwa$   $k^a-th\bar{\imath}$ , 'he is dead' I said; (but he was not dead).  $T\bar{a}n$  means 'again'; thus,  $a-n\bar{u}ng-t\bar{a}n$ , he is alive again. Thar is the causative suffix; thus, a-ka-thar, he caused to go, he sent. Thak or  $th\bar{a}k$ , to abandon; to leave behind, is used as a suffix of past time; thus,  $by\bar{e}$   $n^a-chim-th\bar{a}k-m\bar{a}$ , have you spoken about it? Thon means 'previously';  $v\bar{e}$ , also, etc.

The **Negative particle** is lo; thus, a-pal-lo, he gave not. The negative particle lha, which is used with the imperative (see above), also occurs with other tenses; thus,  $k_a$ -nga- $p\bar{e}k$ -lha, I do not recognise this.

The Interrogative particles are  $m\acute{a}$  or ma,  $ch\bar{\imath}$ , a, da-ra, and ma-ka. Thus, n- $kl\bar{u}ng$ - $m\acute{a}$ , have you arrived ? n- $d\bar{u}$ -nga- $ch\bar{\imath}$ , do you want it ?  $z\bar{u}ng$ -za-ma n- $l\bar{u}$  a-fak, is your head  $(l\bar{u})$  always  $(z\bar{u}ng$ -za) paining ? etc.

Adjectives are freely used as verbs; thus, a-ta-sang, it is good; nai-lha, don't approach. Verbs are sometimes formed from nouns by adding  $\underline{th}$ . Thus,  $f\hat{a}$ , child;  $fa\underline{th}$ , to breed: var, husband;  $vat\underline{th}$ , to marry a husband. Such words are in reality a kind of causatives. The final  $\underline{th}$  is derived from a t; compare  $\underline{th}i$ , to die;  $\underline{th}at$ , to kill.

Order of words.—The usual order of words is subject, direct object, indirect object, verb.

B 2

# TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

## KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

LAI.

(HAKA, CHIN HILLS.)

(Major A. G. E. Newland, I.M.S., 1899.)

An acute accent shows the words accented in a sentence.

Mî-pa pö-kat fa-pa-rwe pö-nî a-nge. A-nyang-byik fa (or a-lai-lak he-had. The-youngest son (or the-second son) Man 80ns tuooshi-na an-thi'. 'K'-pa, rō-sō-sâ kē-ma thā kan a-pa S2 he-said, 'My-father, the-goods-of my share having-divided me his-father Ni klom-pa nhū-ā a-nyang-byik fa pēk'-ko.' A-thil-lē-sâ amma-hē an-port'. the-youngest son him-to he-divided. Days a-few after give.' His-property a-sâ-lē-rī a-zā-thē-in a-pūm'-ko ko-lhāt-pī kwil a-klong' (or ko-lhāt-pī his-goods  $\cdot all$ he-gathered country-far-very journey he-took (or country-far-very-of thil-lē-rī kwa dang a-pem'-ai). Ki-kin 2 a-ta-lo-kwa-shak-in (or village different he-migrated). There his substance bad-living-in (or bye-rīā-lo-in) a-lhō'-dī-ai. A så a-dī-lak a-lhō'-di-ai-in, kī kwa-in mang-tām riotous-living-in) he-wasted. His goods all he-wasted-when, that village-in a-famine fāk-pī a-klūng'. A-chī'-fāk-a-chan'-fāk-in a-ūm'-ko. Ki-kwa mī-pa-hē anhe-was. Of-that-village a-citizen-to hemighty arose. Want-and-distress-in A-mī-pa-nē a-vok-rwē râl-pek'-âk-ka amma a lo-ā joined. That-citizen-by swine to-feed him his fields-to he-caused-him-to-go. A-râl-tām-nāk-in amma fon vok râl pâ-kim-lak ē a-du. thi-tha-chun His-hungry-state-in he too pig's food belly-full-till to-eat he-was-fain, yet a-ho-mī amma-hē a-tzē' a-pal'-lo (or an-thin'lo). A lüng a-feim-tan-in him-to anything gave-not (gave-not).His mind recovered-again-when mit-ti-rwē (or shāļ-rwē) râl-ē'-ak 'Kapa tham a-ngē', to-himself he-suid, 'My-father's servants (or slaves) food abundant have. tham-thūk-thā-chūn amma ē-kim-nhū-ā mī-dang thin'-âk a-ūm'-fon: 80-much-that they eating-their-fill-after others to-give there-remains-also; kē-ma râl-lo-in ka-thī'-dē-mang-ai. K'-thau'-ko, ka-pa shī-na ka-kal'-lai, ammahunger-in I-to-die-about-am. I-having-arisen, my-father to I-go-will, himhē ka-thī'-lai, " k\*pa-<u>th</u>ē-o, le nangma vān kozin hē k'-shwel'-ai: to I-say-will, "O-father, heavenly spirit and against I-have-sinned; 4016 hi-nhū n\*-fa k'-shi-ai chim'-âk a-shī-ding-lai-lo. N\*-man-pal your-son I-am any-more to-8a4 it-will-be-proper-not. Your-hired rhien-twin-pa bang kē-ma bēl hē-shīr'-vē-hēin." Nhū-ā an thau work-doer like me also make-also-please." Then he arose his-father shī-na an-rath Lamb-pī-vā a-ra'-ling-mang chū a-pa-nē amma to came. Way-great-off he-coming then his-father-by him

an-zō', an-zān'-fāk-in an-klīk'-ling-mang a-fa hōng a-kup' an-in-nam'-ko. herrunning his-son's neck he-embraced he-kissed-him. saw, compassion-from A-fa'-nē amma hē thâ'.  $^{\circ}$  Kapa-thē-o, vān kozīn lē nangma 'O-father, heavenly The-son-by him to said.spirit and you ħē ka-shwel'-ai. Hī-nhū ka-shī-ai chim'-ak a-shī-ding'-lai-lo.' nª-fa against I-have-sinned. Hereafter your-son I-am to-say it-will-be-proper-not.' .chū shāļ-rwē hē an-chim', 'a-ta-chin-chin pwen vūng'-pū. The-father but ser vants to he-said, the-best robe bring-forth. amma hē ē'-thar-thwa; a-kūt hê kūt-rhōl rhōl'-thar, a-kē hë kë-dan him his-hand on a-ring on put: put, his-feet on **s**hoes hē-dīn'-thar; kan-in-ē'-lān, kan-nī kan-in-lâm'-lān, kan-in-boi'-lan; put: we let-us-eat. let-us-be-merry, let-us-feast; ka-fa a-thī'-rwa, ka-thī', chū a-nūng'-tān; a-klao-rwa,  $\mathbf{k}^{\mathbf{a}}$ -thī'. chū he-dead-is, I-said, my-20n ћe is-alive-again; he-lost-is, I-said, he k'-mū'-tān.' An-nī an-in-lâm'-ko an-hoi'-ko I-have-found-again.' They they-made-merry they-feasted.

ŭpa-fa lo-ā a-ūm'-ko.  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{n}$ in-nā an-ra Now the-elder-son field-in he-was. He house-to he-came he-to-reachdeng chū thing-thang lē pūran lē shūm-shal <u>th</u>ūm' lē lām-ko about-was then of-musical-instruments and drums and symbols playing and dancing A' a na-in an thē'. Shāl-pa pö-kat an-hau' bye-an hal'. his80und ears-in he Servant one he-called heard. word-he-asked, 'Hî-byē zē-da shī? a-rwāk shī?' Amma-nē an-thâ', 'Nangma zē-da 'These-things what are? its-meaning what is?' Him-by said. a-klung ai; a-dam'in a-zāng-a-ta'-in klung chi-the-chun a brother he is-come; safe his-health-it-good-being he arrived therefore n\*-pa an-lâm'-ko an-boi'-leo-ē.' Amma-nē a-tin-a-hūn'-len-ko, thy-father he-feasting-is.' is-glad Him-by his-liver-he-opened, in-chūn-nā a-lūt'-nga-lai-lo-da-ko', a-pa in-leng-ā an-shuak' he-enter-would-not-as, his-father house-inside the-house-outside he-came amma-hē an-kâ'-len-ko. Amma a-pa-hē an-<u>th</u>â', 'kēma nangma shī-na him-with he-entreated. He his-father-to said.٠I you wit h kum-za'-pī-yā  $n^a$ -rhien  $k^a$ -twīn'-len-ko-ē' n\*-zē'-byē-in . zē-tik'-ka years-many-in your-work I-have-been-doing thy-any-commandment-in any-time-at na-ka-shwel'-ballo-e; chī-thē-chūn' nang kēma shī-na mēhē-fa thee-I-offended-never: yet thou me to goat-young thē-thē pö-kat bēl zē-tik'-ka na-ka-thin'-fon-lo kan koi-pa-rwē shī-na · small any-time-at thou-me-gavest-also-not, my even friends ē'-âk-ka lâm'-âk-ka. Hī-hī nang-ma fa chū with nª-sâ chu-lbān-nū-rwē shī-na eating-for feasting-for. This thyson that thy-goods harlots with an-lhō-ai an-klung kat-t<u>h</u>ē-in amma sa-ā' nan-boi'-ko-a. he-squandered he-returned as-800n-as him for thou-feast-gavest.'

amma hē an-thī', 'K-fa-pa A-pa-nē nang-ma zung'-za kēma shī-na His-father-by himtohe-said, 'My-son thouever me with ka-ngē thil-lē-sà a-zā'-thē-in nang na-ūm'-ko; kēma thil-lē-sâ a-shi'-fon; thou-art; I I-have things altthythings they-are-also; kan in lâm nga kan-in-boi'-nga a-ta'-ko-da-ko' (or a-shī-ding'-ai), we-glad-be-shall we-feast-shall it-meet-is it-was-right), (or hī-hī nang-ma nao, ma-sa an-thī'-sang-ē', a-<u>th</u>ū a-nung-tan; thisthybrother, formerly he-died, he-is-alive-again; 2010 an-klao'-sang-ë', an-kīr'-tān.' he-lost-was, he-returned-again.'

#### LAKHER DIALECT.

The Lakher dialect is spoken by about 1,000 individuals, living in 300 houses to the south of the Blue Mountains in the Lungleh sub-division of the South Lushai Hills. Their customs are distinct, and it is not thought probable that their language will die out. According to Mr. Drake-Brockman they call themselves Tlongsai. They are an off-shoot of the Tlantlang tribe of Lais. This tribe occupies the Chin Hills to the south and west of the Tashons. Their number in the Chin Hills was estimated at about 5,000 by Messrs. Carey and Tuck. Some inhabitants of the Tlantlang villages on the frontier between the Lushai and the Chin Hills are Lusheis. There has been a good deal of intermarriage, and there are many half-breeds. These all claim to be Lais: The Lakhers are said to be called Zao by the Chins. Zao is probably the same as Zo or Yo, a name which is used to denote most of the tribes in the Hills.

The Tlantlangs were first known on the Arakan and Chittagong Frontiers where they were called Shendus. It is not, however, certain whether all the tribes called so were Tlantlangs. Captain Lewin calls them Shendoos or Lakheyr Poy. His vocabulary seems to be taken from a dialect which in all essentials is identical with that which Major Hughes has used for his list of words in Shandoo. The materials are, however, insufficient for a definite decision. The negative particle seems to be wai which may be compared with the Shö  $\bar{a}$ . The suffix of the Imperative seems to be tai or te, which seems to correspond to Siyin  $t\bar{e}\bar{o}$  and perhaps to Lai thwa. The numerals mainly correspond to those usual in Lai, but also sometimes to the forms occurring in Shö and Khami. It is probable, though it cannot as yet be proved, that the two vocabularies represent one or more dialects intermediate between Lai and Shö. This would agree with the position assigned to the tribe, north-east and east of the Blue Mountains, i.e., the country occupied by the Tlantlangs and Hakas. We are unable to state whether the language spoken by the Lakhers in the Lushai Hills is the same, though we might infer that it is so from the fact that Captain Lewin states that the Shendus are also called Lakheyr. The name Heu-mā given by Captain Tickell is perhaps the same as Zao, see above. Colonel Elles states that the Lakher or Longshing clan came originally from Tlantlang.

The authorities dealing with these tribes are given below. But it must be remembered that it is uncertain whether they have anything to do with the Lakhers of the Lushai Hills.

- TICKELL, CAPT. S. R.,—Notes on the Heu-má or "Shendoos," a tribe inhabiting the Hills North of Arracan.

  Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxi, 1853, pp. 207 and ff.
- LEWIN, CAPT. T. H.,—The Hill Tracts of Chittagong and the Dwellers therein; with Comparative Vocabularies of the Hill Dialects. Calcutta, 1869. Account of the Shendoos on pp. 113, and ff. Shendoo vocabulary on pp. 147 and ff.
- SPEARMAN, H. R., —The British Burma Gazetteer. Vol. i, Rangoon, 1880. Note on the Shandoos on pp. 185 and f.
- HUGHES, MAJOR W. GWYNNE,—The Hill Tracts of Arakan. Rangoon, 1881. Notes on the Shandoos or Poois on pp. 35 and 42 ff.; Shandoo vocabulary, Appendix pp. iii, and ff.
- CHAMBERS, CAPT. O. A., Handbook of the Lushai Country . . compiled in the Intelligence Branch, 1889. Contains a Shendu vocabulary.
- ELLES, COLONEL E. R.,—Military Report on the Chin-Lushai Country. Simla, 1893. Note on the name Shendu on p. 12; on the Lakher or Longshing clan on p. 14.
- CAREY, BERTRAM S., and H. N. TUCK,—The Chin Hills: A History of the People, our Dealings with them, their Customs and Manners, and a Gazetteer of their Country. Vol. i, Rangoon, 1896. Account of the Klangklangs on pp. 160 and f.

## LUSHEI OR DULIEN.

The Lushai Hills have been the scene of various migrations, new tribes at different times pushing the former inhabitants westwards and northwards. The Lushēis, who are now the prevailing race throughout the hills, seem, according to Mr. Davis, to have begun to move forward from the south-east about the year 1810. Between 1840 and 1850 they obtained final and complete possession of the North Lushai Hills, having pressed the former possessors, the Thādos, before them into Cachar. In 1849 they made a raid on a Thādo village in Cachar, and for the first time came in contact with us. After several raids on our territory and occasional expeditions against them on our part, we, in the beginning of 1890, took continued possession of the North Lushai Hills, and in May 1890 a political officer was appointed to control our relations with the Lushēis, with his head quarters at Aijal. The South Lushai Hills were constituted as a British district on and from the 1st April 1891.

Regarding the various tribes who speak some form or other of Lushēi, I am indebted to Major J. Shakespear, C.I.E., D.S.O., I.S.C., for the following information:—

Lushai is our way of spelling the word; the proper way to spell the word, so as to represent the actual sound, as spoken by the people, is Lushai. The term includes a number of families, among which are the following: Sailo, Thanglua, Rivung, Jadang, Rokum, Pallian, Pachua, Haonar, Chenkual, Choahang, Changte, Chongte, Hualgno, Hualhang [Howlong]. (The Hualgno are the tribe spoken of by the Chin Hills officers as Whench.) There are probably other families that claim to be true Lushais. The term Dulien is also applied to these families and the language spoken by all these families is known as Lushai or Dulien. These Lushais have conquered and broken up all other communities which formerly had separate villages in the hills. So completely has this been done that when we occupied the hills, nearly every village was ruled by a chief of one of the following families, viz., Sailo, Thanglua, Pallian. Of these, the Sailo were far the most numerous; in fact to-day, the number of houses in villages not ruled by Sailos is insignificant. The Lushai having conquered the other clans and absorbed them to a great extent, it is natural that the Lushai language has come to be the language of by far the greater number of people in the hills west of the Tyao-Koladyne line.

'The people who inhabit this area and who are not Lushëis may be divided into (a) tribes conquered and absorbed by the Lushëis, (b) immigrants from the Chin Hills, who have come across the Tyao-Koladyne line and seized land by force of arms, (c) the Fanai.

- 'Among (a) are Rāltē, Mhār, Paitē, Vanchia, Kolhring, Ngentē, Powtn, and innumerable others. Most of these, if they ever had a separate language, have lost it now and speak only Lushēi. The Mhār and the Rāltē are still numerous and keep together and thus their dialects have survived. All these people are indistinguishable from Lushēis in their appearance and only differ in a few of their customs and methods of sacrificing.
- '(b) Among these are the Jshow, more properly Zahao, in the northern hills and the Lakhers and other immigrants from round Haka in the southern hills. These people speak their own languages, and if their progress had not been arrested by us they would have made an effort to drive out the Lusheis. Their customs and languages differ from those of the Lusheis in many particulars.
- '(c) The Fanai are a very small family, the first Fanai to be considered a chief, was the grandfather of the present Fanai chiefs, of whom there are only seven, who rule some 800 houses. They speak Lushei.
- 'It must be clearly understood that there are no tribes as we understand the term. In former official correspondence the Syloo tribe and the Thanglus tribe are spoken of, and it was thought that all people living in these communities were Syloos (Sailos) or Thanglus, whereas Sailo, Thanglus, etc., are nearly only the names of individual families to which the chiefs belonged, the villages ruled by these chiefs being inhabited by representatives of many different families. I have just succeeded in tracing out the pedigree of the Sailo who are also called Thangur, through 13 generations back to Thangura, the founder of the family and grandfather of Sailoa, whence the family took their name.'

To this may be added the following statement taken from Mr. Davis' Gazetteer of the North Lushai Hills:—

'The term Lushei, though known to the people living in the Lushai Hills, is not, however, used in the general sense in which we are accustomed to employ it, and is really used as a name for only one of the many

clans or septs who speak what is known among the people themselves as the 'Dulien Tong' or 'Dulien language.' . . . The general term that includes all inhabitants of the North Lushai Hills, except Pois, is 'Mezo' or 'Mizāu,' of which the principal sub-divisions are as follows:—

(1) Dulien, or Lushēi.
(2) Mhār.
(3) Rāltē.
(4) Paitē.

'These again are sub-divided into many castes or clans; thus, of the Dulien or Lushei the principal clans are,—

(1) Pāllien. (3) Cheng khuāl. (2) Sāilō or Thāngur. (4) Pachu-āu.

'The first three of these clans are royal castes. The Pallien is now nearly extinct, and is represented in the North Lushai Hills by two chiefs only. . . . There is one chief of the Chengkhuāl clan, and all the rest of the chiefs of villages in the North Lushai Hills are of the Sailō family.'

The Lushëis are described as 'short, sturdy, thick-set men of Mongolian type of face and build.' 'The men average in height from 5 feet to 5 feet 8 inches, and the women from 4 feet 8 inches to 5 feet 4 inches. Both sexes vary greatly in colour, from light yellow to very dark brown. Good looks are more frequent amongst the men than amongst the women.' Colonel Elles remarks:—

'Many of them wear a dull and morose air, which is partly due to perpetual intoxication, though no doubt, principally to the gloomy forests and heavy rainfall of the country they inhabit. In nature they are no doubt savage and morose, and they have not as yet acquired any of the virtues of civilization. Even patriotism takes simply the form of a mule-kicking when it considers its load too heavy, and we have no instance of self-sacrifice in defence of home or country, and very little pressure has again and again induced them to desert their chiefs. They will overpower a small force if they get the opportunity, and soon after meet an avenging force with every sign of friendliness and welcome. . . . Men, women, and children smoke tobacco almost incessantly. . . . They manufacture a kind of beer from rice and other grain called variously kang, lu or zu, and drink great quantities of it.'

A small class of men from their boyhood adopt the clothes and habits of women. They are called 'Toi,' and are treated as women, and do women's work. Their principal occupation used to be dancing, for which purpose they used to travel from village to village.

The Lushëis live in villages, usually placed on the tops of hills and ridges, and varying in size from 600 to 50 houses. The government of the village is in the hands of the chief or  $l\bar{a}l$ . His house is open as an asylum, but everybody who takes refuge here becomes the chief's slave. The villages are moved to a fresh site about once in every five years. This is a consequence of their system of cultivation, which is the *jhum* system common to all hill tribes.

'The religion of the Lusheis,' says Mr. Davis, 'is the same as that of the other animistic tribes on this frontier, i.e., though they believe that a good spirit exists, their sacrifices are always made to the particular bad spirit to whose influence any particular misfortune is supposed to be due.'

Several languages are spoken in the Lushai Hills, thus, besides various Indo-Aryan vernaculars spoken by scattered individuals, the following languages belonging to the Kuki-Chin group: Zahao, Lakher, Mhār, Paitē, Lai and Rāltē. But the principal language throughout the hills is Lushēi or Dulien, which is also commonly understood by the Zahaos and the Rāltēs. This language is also spoken in the south-west corner of the Cachar plains. The figures reported for Lushēi are as follows:—

 Cachar Plains :
 239

 Lushai Hills :
 18,000

 Lushai Hills (Lungleh)
 22,300

 Total :
 40,539

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#### The Deputy Commissioner of the Lushai Hills states:-

This dialect of the Kuki-Lushai Group is the *lingua france* of all the tribes in the Nath Lushai Hills. District, as I believe it is of all the tribes of the South Lushai Hills, being understood by ab. It is the language of the Sailau (Syloo) clan which has within the past 60 years attained a prominent position in the Lushai country and given chiefs to almost every community in it. The Lushais or Duliens do not however, f rm a majority of the population. There are now-a-days no pure villages of any one tribe, although such existed, I believe, formerly.'

With regard to the Lushëis reported from Lungleh, these are, according to a note kindly prepared by Major J. Shakespear, the people who understand Lushëi.

'Among them are several who among themselves speak other languages, some of which appear to differ a materially from Lushëi as to be hardly entitled to be called dialects of it. Amongst these, the best known are Råltë and Ngentë, but probably many others are still used in parts of the hills. It is impossible, as yet, to estimate the number of persons speaking these languages, as they are scattered about among the different villages, and their number could only be ascertained by taking a careful census. It appears probable that these languages will gradually cease to be used. At present there are villages in the North Lushai Fills, in which there are large Råltë communities, who speak their own language and hardly understand Lushëi; but it is probable that these will gradually break up and cease using their own language. All these tribes are called by us Lushai, and by themselves Zao, and by the Eastern tribes, whom we call Chin, Měr.'

Ngentē is a dialect of Lushēi, specimens of which have been procured, and which will be treated below. But we have very little information with regard to other dialects. Fannai is said to be a Lushēi dialect. It is spoken in the South Lushēi Hills between their Eastern border and the Koladyne River, from about Jaduna to about Dopura, but we have no further information about it. The Lushēis are often divided into Western Lushēis, west of the Sonai and north of the Darlung peak and the Moifang range; Eastern Lushēis, east of the Sonai towards Arbam Peak; Kairuma, in the extreme southeast corner of the North Lushai Hills; and Howlongs north and north-east of Lungleh and south of the Sailam. But this division seems to be based on other than linguistic grounds.

Standard Lushëi is relatively well known. Brojo Nath Shaha, and the Pioneer Missionaries J. Herbert Lorrain and Fred. W. Savidge have written grammars. The grammar of the latter is accompanied by a full Lushëi-English and English-Lushëi Dictionary, and word lists are to be found in many of the sources mentioned below. Mr. Davis remarks that the Lushëi language has a closer resemblance to Rāngkhöl than to Thādo, and this notwithstanding the fact that the Rāngkhöls had been completely ousted from the Lushai Hills by the Thādos before the Lushëis ever entered that territory. According to the same authority, Lushëi is also connected with the Nāgā languages and with Manipurī, and closer with the former than with the latter. Compare, however, the general introduction to the Kuki-Chin group.

There is no written literature. But several tales and songs are current. Major Shakespear has given us specimens of the former and Colonel Lewin and Brojo Nath Shaha of the latter.

The following is a list of authorities dealing with the Lushëis:—

LEWIN, CAPT. T. H.,—The Hill Tracts of Chittagong and the Dwellers therein; with comparative Vocabularies of the Hill Dialects. Calcutta, 1869. Contains an account of the Lhoosai pp. 98 and ff. and vocabularies, Lhoosai, etc., pp. 146 and ff.

LEWIN, LIEUTENANT-COLONEL T. H., -Hill Proverbs of the Inhabitants of the Chittagong Hill Tracts. Calcutta, 1873.

LEWIN, LIEUTENANT-COLONEL T. H.,—Progressive Colloquial Exercises in the Lushai Dialect of the 'Dzo' or Kuki Language, with Vocabularies and popular Tales. Calcutta, 1874. Contains on p. 2 a Vocabulary, Lushai, etc.

CAMPBELL, SIR GEORGE,—Specimens of Languages of India, including those of the aboriginal Tribes of Bengal, the Central Provinces, and the Eastern Frontier. Calcutta, 1874. Vocabulary, Lushai, etc., pp. 189 and ff.

HUNTER, W. W.,—A Statistical Account of Bengal. Volume vi., London, 1876. Contains an account of the Lushais, pp. 59 and ff.

DAMANT, G. H.,—Notes on the Locality and Population of the Tribes dwelling between the Brahmaputra and Ningthi Rivers. Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, New Series, Volume xii, 1880, pp. 228 and ff. Note on the Lushais, p. 240; Vocabulary, Lushai (after Lewin), etc., p. 255.

Brojo Nath Shaha,—A Grammar of the Lúshái Language, to which are appended a few illustrations of the Zau or Lúshái popular songs and translations from Æsop's Fables. Calcutta, 1884.

ANDERSON, J. D.,—A short List of Words of the Hill Tippera language, with their English equivalents.

Also of Words of the Language spoken by Lushais of the Sylhet Frontier. To which have been added... Lushai Equivalents from the Dialect spoken by the Lushais of the Chittagong Frontier: these latter are taken from Captain Lewin's Exercises in the Lushai Language. Shillong, 1885.

Soppitt, C. A.,—A short Account of the Kuki-Lushai Tribes on the North-East Frontier (districts Cachar, Sylhet, Naga Hills, etc., and the North Cachar Hills), with an Outline Grammar of the Rangkhol-Lushai Language and a Comparison of Lushai with other Dialects. Shillong, 1887. Lushai Vocabulary, pp. 86 and ff.

B., H. R.,-The Lushais. 1873 to 1889. Shillong, 1889.

CHAMBERS, O. A.,—Handbook of the Lushai Country —— Compiled . . . . . . in the Intelligence Branch. Calcutta, 1889. Contains Vocabularies, Lushai (Kuki), etc.

GAIT, E. A.,—Report on the Census of Assam for 1891. Shillong, 1892. Contains a note on the Lushai, p. 182, and on the Kuki-Lushai tribes, p. 251.

BAINES, J. A.,—Census of India, General Report. London, 1893. Note on the Kúki-Lushái group, p. 150.

ELLES, COLONEL, E. R., -Military Report on the Chin-Lushai Country. Simla, 1893.

DAVIS, A. W., Gazetteer of the North Lushai Hills. Shillong, 1894.

HUTCHINSON, R. H. SNEYD, - Vocabulary of the Lushai Language. Calcutta, 1897.

LORRAIN, J. HERBERT, AND FRED. W. SAVIDGE.—A Grammar and Dictionary of the Lushai Language (Dulien dialect). Shillong, 1898.

SHAKESPEAR, MAJOR,—Mi-zo leh vai thon thu [Lushei and foreign tales]. Shillong, 1898.

Mizo zir tir bu [Lushei Primer]. Printed and published by Authority. Shillong, 1899.

The following sketch of the Lushëi grammar is based on the grammars by Brojo Nath Shaha and Lorrain and Savidge, to which the student is referred for further details.

**Pronunciation.**—The pronunciation of the vowels seems, in many cases, to be rather indistinct. Thus the suffix of the past tenses of the verbs is  $t\bar{a}$  or  $t\hat{a}$ , the verb 'to come' is written hong, hon, ho, or háng, etc. A before ng has the sound of u in English 'but.' Nang, thou, is therefore often written nung. Final vowels of words and syllables are generally long. G as an initial letter only occurs in foreign words. J is said to be a foreign sound. It occurs, however, instead of z, in the second specimen, where it is probably only a method of representing the sound of the latter letter. The sounds sh and s are often interchangeable. The liquids l, m, n, r, can be aspirated, and are then followed by the letter h. When h is placed at the end of a syllable or word, it denotes that the sound must be abruptly shortened. Some phonetical changes must be noted. Thus ei often becomes  $\bar{e}$ , as in nei, n $\bar{e}$ , to have; ei,  $\bar{e}$ , to eat. A euphonic v is inserted after a word ending in o or oh, when a vocalic suffix is added. Thus lo, field, lo-v- $\bar{a}$ , in the field. Brojo Nath Shaha mentions several other 'euphonic' letters, thus ch, m, l, etc. Final consonants are often silent, thus po or pok, even, etc.

Articles.—The indefinite article is the numeral pa-khat, one. Demonstrative pronouns or relative participles supply the place of the definite article.

1. (SHI).

Nouns.—Gender.—Gender is only distinguished in the case of animate beings. Names of animals, unless distinguished by such as and the combinate objects are neuter. The same word often denotes scalings of different goods r, when no ambiguity ensues. Thus  $f\bar{a}$ , child;  $\bar{u}$ , elder brother or sister. Ano, younger brother or sister. Gender is distinguished in the following ways:—

- Often, in the case of nouns of relationship, by using different words; thus, pā, father; nā, mother; pā-sal, huskanā; nā-pai, wife: pā, paternal uncle; pā, maternal uncle;
- By suffixing pā for the masculine, and nū for the feminine; thus, fā-pā, son;
   fū-nū, daughter: thien-pū, male friend; thien-nū, female friend;
- Proper nouns of the masculine gender end in ā, those of the feminine gender in
  i, thus Challongō, Lalrāmi;
- 4. In the case of full-grown animals chal or  $p\bar{a}$  is suffixed to denote the male, and  $pu\bar{i}$  or  $n\bar{u}$  to denote the female, thus  $k\bar{e}l$ -chal, a he-goat,  $k\bar{e}l$ -pui, a she-goat.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. Number is not indicated when it appears from the context. The suffices of the plural are te, ho, te-ho, ho-te, zong-zong, and zong-zong-te. Thus, thien-te, friends; mi-ho, men; lāl-te-ho, chiefs, etc. A postposition sometimes precedes the plural suffix, thus thing phēn-ā te, behind the trees.

Case.—The simple theme is commonly used to denote the cases of the subject, the direct and the indirect object, the vocative and the genitive. Suffixes are used to denote cases as follows:—

Case of the agent.—The suffix in, denoting the agent, is usually added to the subject when followed by a transitive verb in the active voice; thus,  $a-p\bar{a}-in$   $a-t\bar{i}-a$ , by the father he said.

Genitive.—Occasionally the word a is added; thus, ka-furn $\bar{u}$  a-puan, my sister's cloth. This a seems to be identical with the pronominal prefix, and the above may be translated as well 'my sister her cloth'. In the case of feminine nouns i may be substituted for a; thus, ka far- $n\bar{u}$  i puan, my sister's cloth. When the governing noun is understood the genitive takes the suffix  $t\bar{a}$ ; thus,  $s\bar{a}$  puan  $s\bar{a}$  ka- $p\bar{a}$ -ta a- $n\bar{i}$ , that cloth that my father's it is. This  $t\bar{a}$  is probably identical with the suffix of the past tense, which is often added to adjectives in many Kuki-Chin dialects. A form such as ka- $p\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$  is therefore a kind of relative participle.

Locative.—The suffixes of the locative are in and  $\bar{a}$ ; thus, ril-ru-in, in the heart; lov- $\bar{a}$ , in the fields.

Vocative.—The vocative singular takes no termination. The suffix u is used in forming the vocative plural as also the imperative plural, see below. Thus  $m\bar{i}$ -te u, 0 men. In proper nouns the terminations  $\bar{a}$  and i are dropped in the vocative; thus, Chalbong, O Chalbong $\bar{a}$ ; Liangkung, O Liangkungi. Short names retain the termination; thus,  $Kh\bar{u}m\bar{u}$ , Tungi. The terminations  $\bar{a}$  and i are sometimes added to the vocative of other nouns. Thus thien- $\bar{a}$ , thien- $\bar{i}$ , O friend (male and female respectively).

The suffixes are added to the adjective when it follows the noun; thus, thin tak-in, rejoicing great-in.

Adjectives.—The comparative degree is formed by adding zok, zdk, more, to the positive. Thus, nao-pang-zok, the younger. The particles of comparison are aiin, aiia, or

 $nh\bar{e}k$ -in. Thus,  $f\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$   $f\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{u}$  ain a-shang- $z\bar{a}k$ , the son the daughter than he-tall-more. The superlative may also be formed by adding ber, very most, to the positive; thus,  $p\bar{u}an$   $th\bar{a}$  ber, the best cloth. Adverbs may be formed by suffixing in, or tak-in, to the adjective; thus,  $th\bar{a}$ , good,  $th\bar{a}$ -tak-in, well. Their comparative degree is formed by adding leh, zual, or deo, their superlative by adding ber.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. The prefix pa in the first nine numerals is a generic prefix and is often dropped when the numerals qualify a noun. It is, however, retained when human beings are spoken of. There are apparently no other generic prefixes. The ordinals are formed by adding  $n\bar{a}$ , the suffix of a relative participle, to the cardinal numbers; thus,  $pa-th\bar{u}m-n\bar{a}$ , third;  $pa-ny\bar{a}-n\bar{a}$ , fifth.

# Pronouns.—The following are the Personal pronouns:—

Singular.

kei-mā, kei, ka, I,

kei-mā, kei-ā, ka, my.

kei-mā-tā, keimā-a-tā, kei-a-tā, ka-tā, mine.

kei-mā-min, kei-min, min, mi, me.

nang-mā, nang, i, thou.

nang-mā, nang-ā, i, thy.

nang-mā-tā, nang-mā-a-tā, i-tā, thine.

nang-mā, nang, thee.

a-mā, a-ni, a, he, she, it.

a-mā, a-ni, a, his, her, its.

a-mā-tā, a-mā-a-tā, a-ni-tā,-a-tā, his, hers, its.

a-mā, a-ni, him, her, it.

kei-mā-ni, kei-ni, kan, we.
kei-mā-ni, kei-ni, kan, our.
kei-mā-ni-tā, kei-ni-tā, kan-tā, ours.
kei-mā-ni-min, kei-ni-min, min, mi, us.
nang-mā-ni, nang-ni, in, you.
nang-mā-ni, nang-ni, in, your.
nang-mā-ni-tā, nang-ni-tā, in-tā, yours.
nang-mā-ni, nang-ni, you.
an-mā-ni, an-ni, an, they.
an-mā-ni, an-ni, an, their.
an-mā-ni-tā, an-ni-tā, an-tā, theirs.
an-mā-ni, an-ni, them.

Plural.

The accusative case of the second person is frequently formed by omitting or retaining the pronoun, and affixing che, a-che, or chi- $\bar{\alpha}$  in the singular, and che-u or a-che-u, in the plural. Thus, ka- $v\bar{e}l$ -ang che, I will strike thee. The forms ka, kan; i, in; a, an, are also used as pronominal prefixes to the verbs. See below. The suffixes used in the declension of nouns are also used after pronouns. The suffix of the agent in may be contracted after a preceding vowel; thus, an, by him.

The Reflexive pronoun is expressed by prefixing in to the verb; thus, kan-in-hao-e, we mutually quarrelled.

The Demonstrative pronouns are hei, he, hei-hi, he-hi, this; sá, sá-sá, that; khā, khā-khā, that (near you); khu, khu-khu, that down there; khi, khi-khi, that up there; chu, chu-chu, that. Plural heng, heng-hi, sáng, etc. When any of the compound forms is used, the noun they qualify is placed between the two components; thus, he khuā hi, this village. When the suffix of the agent in is added, these pronouns become hian, sán, khan, chuan, etc.

There is no Relative pronoun.—The idea of a relative pronoun is expressed by using relative participles or verbal nouns. Thus, ka-vuak-lai-in, I-beating-time-at, at the time when I was beating; a-om-nā khua, he being village, the village in which he was; sā mī sā i-mhu-tu, this man you seeing, this man whom you see; nimin-ā mī lō-kal, yesterday man came, the man who came yesterday; puan nok-tūk-ā ka-lei-tūr, cloth to-morrow I to-buy, the cloth which I shall buy to-morrow. A demonstrative pronoun is frequently used as a kind of correlative; thus, nao-pang a-puan ka-lāk,

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khā a-lō-kal-ang, the boy his cloth I took, he he will come. A relative clause is put in the plural by affixing te, thus puan ka-mhu te, the clothes which I saw.

The Interrogative pronouns are tu, tu nge, tu må, who? eng, eng nge, zeng nge, eng må, what? kho-i-nge, which? thus, tu-in nge vēl che, who hit you? When a is prefixed to an interrogative pronoun, the meaning becomes partitive; thus, a-tu nge i-ko, whom of them do you call? Tih, this, may be used with an interrogative pronoun to denote relativity; thus, tu nge ni, tih i-rhia em, who was it? do you know this? do you know who it was?

Verbs.—Verbs are conjugated in person and number by means of pronominal prefixes. These are the following:—

Singular,— $k\alpha$ , I i, thou a, he, she, it.

Plural, kan, we in, you an, they.

When the subject is a neuter noun a also denotes the third person plural. When two singular nominatives are connected by means of  $nhen-\bar{a}$ , with, the verb takes the plural particle; thus,  $Lienbik\bar{a}$   $nhen-\bar{a}$  kan in-hao-ve, (I) Lienbik $\bar{a}$  with, we mutually quarrelled. The prefixes are omitted when the verb governs a personal pronoun of the first person as its object; when the subject is an interrogative pronoun or an infinitive; and in the imperative tense.

The root alone is freely used to denote present and past tenses; thus, eng an- $t\bar{\imath}$ , what (do) they do?  $a-t\bar{\imath}$ , he said.

The **Past tense** is also formed by adding the suffix  $t\bar{a}$  or  $t\hat{a}$ ; thus, a-pem- $t\bar{a}$ , he migrated.

The suffix of the **Future** is ang; thus, ka-kal-ang, I will go. The future is also used to denote what is presumed to be true; thus, a-ni-ang-e, it may be.

Throughout these tenses of the indicative mood an e or a may be suffixed, apparently without altering the meaning; thus,  $kei-m\bar{a}$  ka-ni-e, I am;  $kei-m\bar{a}$  ka-in-e, I drank;  $kei-m\bar{a}$  ka-shoi-ang-e, I will say;  $a-t\bar{i}-a$ , he said.

The suffix of the Imperative is ro, plural ro-u, in the third person ro-se; thus,  $p\bar{e}$ -ro, give thou;  $l\bar{a}$ -ro-u, bring you; ni-ro-se, let him, them, be. The first person is formed by the particle  $\bar{\imath}$ , prefixed to the future; thus,  $\bar{\imath}$ - $\bar{e}$ -ang, let us feast. Compare Participles.

The suffix of the Negative imperative is  $sh\bar{u}$ ,  $sh\bar{u}$ -u,  $sh\bar{u}$ -se,  $sh\bar{u}$  ang; thus, shoi  $sh\bar{u}$ , do not say; i-shoi  $sh\bar{u}$ -ang, let us not say.

A Conditional is formed by adding chuan, if, to the verb; thus, kan om chuan, if we remain, lit. we remain, that-being. Often also the present participle is used to form conditional tenses.

The Infinitive or Verbal noun is identical with the root; thus, ei, to eat;  $lh\bar{a}-tak-a$   $a-l\bar{a}-om-lai-in$ , distance-great-at his-still-being-time-at, when he was still far off;  $a-r\bar{a}l-z\bar{a}-ve-le$ , its-spending-completing-time-at, when it had become thoroughly spent. Another verbal noun is formed by adding the suffix  $n\bar{a}$ ; thus,  $a-om-n\bar{a}-khua$ , his-being-village, the village in which he was. The same forms may also be considered as relative participles. See Relative pronouns. The infinitive of purpose is formed by adding the suffixes  $t\bar{u}r$ ,  $t\bar{u}r-in$ ,  $n\bar{a}-t\bar{u}r$ ,  $n\bar{a}n$ , an, in; thus,  $ei-t\bar{u}r$ , to eat;  $veng-t\bar{u}r-in$ , to watch.

A Noun of Agency is formed by adding the suffix tu; thus,  $mh\bar{u}$ -tu, one who sees; ngai-tu, a lover, etc.

The suffix of the Adverbial participle is in, in form identical with the suffix of the locative. Thus, a-nhā thok-in a-om-tā, his-work doing he remained.

The suffix of the Conjunctive participle is a generally with the pronominal prefix; thus, a-sum a-khām-a khua-lam  $lh\bar{a}$ -tak-a a-kal-tā-a, his property he collecting village far to he migrated. This form is very commonly used in a sentence which is complete in construction, but dependent on a subsequent clause to complete the meaning of the speaker. Another participle is formed by adding  $l\bar{a}$  or lang, preceded by i, u, or she, according to the person denoted. Thus, shoi-i-lā, I-saying, if I say; shoi-tā-i-lā, I having said. If  $m\bar{a}$  is inserted after the root, the meaning becomes 'although.' Thus, ni-mā-she-lā, that being although, nevertheless. This participle ending in  $l\bar{a}$  is usually substituted for the first of two connected imperatives, as a conjunctive participle; thus, kal-u-lang lei-roh, going buy, go and buy.

The **Passive voice** is said to be formed by combining the root or the infinitive of the principal verb with the verb substantive. A long vowel in the root is shortened. Thus, pe a-ni-ang-e, it will be given; ei-tūr a-ni-ange, it shall be eaten. In reality, however, there is no passive voice, as different from the active. In, the suffix of the agent, when added to the subject, shows that the verb must be translated as active. In other cases the context shows how to translate. A clause such as  $a-m\bar{a}$   $f\bar{a}-p\bar{a}$  ka-vua, his son's my-beating, may be translated 'I beat his son,' and 'his son was beaten by me.'

Compound verbs are in very common use. The principal prefixes are zuk (motion downwards); han (motion upwards and towards the speaker); lō, ron (motion towards), and va (motion on level ground).

Causatives are formed by adding the verb  $t\bar{\imath}r$ , to cause; thus, kal- $t\bar{\imath}r$ , to cause to go, to send.

Desideratives are formed by means of the verb du, to wish, or some synonymous verb. Thus,  $a-l\bar{u}t-du-loh-v\bar{a}$ , he to-enter-wished not.

Potentiality is indicated by the verb thei, to be able; thus, ka-ka-thei-loh-ve, I go cannot. Other words frequently used in forming compounds are dan, to be about; reng and  $th\bar{t}n$ , denoting continuity; sak, meaning 'for,' 'from';  $sh\bar{e}ng$ , completely;  $v\bar{e}k$ , entirely;  $m\bar{e}k$ , forming a present definite, etc.

The **Negative particle** is *loh*, suffixed to the root. Nēm and nāng are sometimes substituted for *loh-ve* and *loh-vang*. Thus ka-ni-loh-ve or ka-ni- $n\bar{e}m$ , I am-not. The negative imperative is formed by suffixing  $sh\bar{u}$ . See above.

Interrogative particles are em, em-ni, e-lo, má, e-má, lo-vem-ni, ne-má, na-nge. Thus, i-kal-ange em, will you go? kal i-du e-má, do you wish to go?

Other words are freely treated as verbs. Thus,  $m\bar{\imath}$  a-thā-e, the man he is good; an-mā-ni-tā-tūr-in, for their sake; an in-thien-e, they are mutually friends.

Order of Words.—The usual order of words is subject, indirect object, direct object, verb. In interrogative sentences the direct object generally precedes the indirect one. Demonstratives are put at the beginning of the sentence. A genitive is generally placed immediately before the governing noun. Adjectives usually follow the noun they qualify. Adverbs are placed before adjectives and after verbs.

I am indebted to Messrs. Savidge and Lorrain for a translation of the Parable of the Prodigal Son in Lushëi. Another specimen, representing the dialect spoken in the South Lushai Hills, has been prepared by Mr. Sneyd Hutchinson, Superintendent of the South Lushai Hills. A list of Standard Words and Phrases will be found on pp. 160 and if. It is due to Major J. Shakespear, C.I.E., D.S.O., I.S.C.

[No. 10.]

## TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

#### LUSHEI OR DULIEN.

## SPECIMEN I.

(Messrs. F. W. Savidge and J. H. Lorrain, 1896.)

Mī tū-in-e-mà fā-pā pa-nhih a-nē. A-nau-pang-zāk-in a-pā nhena, he-had. The-young-more-by his-father Man a-certain-by sons two to. ka-chanai min pe-rah,' a-tīa. Tin 'ka-pā, rō a-sum an gire,' he-said. Then his-property them 'my-father, property-of my-share me nhen-a a-shem-a. Nī rē-lō-tean a-nau-pang-zâk-in pa-nhih a-sum a-zā-in among he-divided. Day long-not the-young-more-by his-property two all khua-lam lhā-tak-a a-kal-tā-a, chu-ta-chuan nūam-lū-tuk-in a-khâm-vek-a he-collected-entirely-and country far-very-to he-went, there luxuriously chu a-bō-rāl-tīr-tā-a. A-răl-zâ-ve-le a-om-a a-sum he-being his-property that he-to he-lost-to-disappear-caused. It-lost-completely-when chu khua-lam chu na-sha-tak-in an-tām-tā-a, ē-tūr a-tlā-chham-a. Tin chu lam that country that exceedingly they-hungered, to-eat he-lacked. Then that place mī tū-e-mâ nhena chuan nhā-thok-in a-va-tang-a: village-in man a-certain with there work-doing he-went-engaged-himself; that man chuan vok châ-te pe-tūr-in a-lō-lam-a a-tīr-a. Eng-lo kam vok-in that-by pigs food giving-for his-fields-direction-in he-sent. Any husks an-ē khā a-nī-pâh-in č-puar a-du-em-em-a; tu-ma-in eng-ma an-pe-shī-lō-va. they-ate that him-also by to-eat-his-fill he-wished-much; anybody anything they-gave-not. 'ka-pā A-harh-le-ve-le. nhena in-lhåh-fä-te châ ē-shen-lō-va nē an He-avoke-when, 'my-father with food to-eat-finishing-not have they servants tam-vē-nen, kē lā-chu he-ta ril-tām-in ka-thī-dân-a. Ka-thō-vang-a ka-pā many-also, I but here belly-hunger-in I-arise-will my-father I-dying-am. "ka-pā, le nangma mit-mhū-in nhena ka-va-shoi-ang-a, vân-a-mî chunga "my-father, heaven-its-man against and thy eye-sight-in to I-go-say-will, thil ka-tī-sual-e. ka-ni-lō-ve; i nhena Ka mhing i fā-pā vua tlāk thina I-did-evil. My name thy son to-bear worthy I-am-not; thee with a-thōva in-lhâh-fā pa-khat ang-in min shīem-ve-râh," a-tī-a. Tin a-pā Then he-arising his-father servant likemake-also," he-said. oneme nhen-a a kal-tā-a. Chu-ti-chuan lhā-tak-a a-lā-om-lai-in a-pā-in a-lo-mhū-a. far-very he-yet-was-time-at his-father-by he-towards-saw, he went. There a-khâ-ngai-a, a-tlan-a, a A nhen-a a-fā-pā-in, ir-a chuk-tuah-a a-fâp-a. Him to his-son-by, he-pitied, he-ran, his neck-on embracing he-kissed.

chunga le nangma mit-mhū-in thil ka-ti-sual-e, ka-mhing van-a-mi eye-sight-in thing I-did-evil, my-name 'my-father, heaven's-man to andthytlāk ka-ni-lō-ve, a-tīa. i a-vua Ni-mā-she-la a-pā-in a-boih-te I-am-not,' he-said. son its-bearing worthy Nevertheless his-father his-slaves thu 'pūan thā-ber han-lā-thuē-ū-lā han-shin-tīr-râh-ū, nhen-a. 'cloth best here-bringing-quickly to. here-put-on-let(-him), his-hand-on zung-bun-te a-ke-phāh-a phē-kok-te bun-tīr-râh-ū, lhīm-tak-in ī-ē-ang-ū; he ka-fā-pā finger-rings his-feet-on joyfully let-us-eat; this my-son shoesput. a-lō-nung-le-tā a-nī-e: kan-mhū-le-tā a-nī-e,' a-tī-a. hī a-thi. a-bō-va this he-died, he-here-revived-again he-is; he-lost-was we-saw-again he-is,' he-said. Tin lhim-tak-in an-om-tan-tā-a. Then joyfully they-to-be-began.

Tin a-fā-pā ū-pā-zâk lō-va a-om. a-lō-thlen-dân-in In-a eng-lo Then his-son old-more field-in he-was. House-to he-back-to-come-about-being some le an-lām-thâm a-rhe-tā-a. Tin boih tū-e-mâ a-kō-va, 'chu eng-nge tum-rī drum-sound and dancing-sound he-heard. Then slave some he-calling, 'that what a-zât-a. A nhena. nī-tā?' a-tī-a i-nau a-lō-thleng-tā-a, hīm-tak-in is?' he-saying he-asked. Him to, 'thy-younger-brother he-back-came, a-mhū-le-a-vāng-in, i-pā-in ruai a-theh, a-tī-a. Tin a-thin-ur-a he-saw-again-because, thy-father-by feast he-gives,' he-said. Then he-angry-becoming a-lūt-du-lō-va: in-a a-pā a-lö-dāk-a a-thlem-a. Nī-mā-she-la house-in he-to-enter-wished-not; his-father he-came-out he-entreated. Nevertheless nhen-a, "Rhe-râh, kum-khua he chin hī a-pā i-nhấ ka-thok-a, i-thū "Listen, his-father to. always this till this thy-work I-did. thy-word ka-oi-lō-ngai-shī-lō-va; lä-hi ka-thien-te nhen-a lhim-na-tür kel-tē min but I-to-obey-not-considered-not; my-friends with feasting-for kidme pe-ngai-shi-lo. Chu-tin he i fā-pā hī nâ-chi-zūar nhen-a i-sum to-give-considered st-not. Now this thy son this harlots with thy-property ē-rāl-vek-tū, hī a-lō-kal-ve-le a-mā-tān ruai` i-theh-vē-a,' a-tī-a wasted-all-who, hehe-coming him-for feast thou-givest-also,' he-said a-chhang-a. Tin a-nhen-a, ' ka-fā-pā, ka-nhen-a i-om-reng-a-lâm, ke-answered. Then him-to, 'my-80n, me-with thou-to-be-always-contented-art, ka-tā a-piang i-tā a-nī-e. Lhim-tak le lâm-tak-in omwhatevermine. thine it-is. Happiness-great and pleasure-great-in to-be a-thā a-lâm : he i nau hī a-thī a-lo-nung-le-tā a-nī-e, it-good it-well-is; this thy younger-brother this he-died he-came-alive-again he-is, bō-va kan-mhū-le-tā a-nī-e, a-tī-a. he lost-was we-saw-again he-is,' he-said.

[No. II.]

# TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

LUSHEI OR DULIEN.

SOUTHERN DIALECT.

(LUNGLEH, LUBHAT HILLS.)

## SPECIMEN II.

#### (R. H. Sneyd Hutchinson, Esq., 1897.)

masak-in ka mhu-loh-ve. Vunjāthangā kan khuā a hon 1 Vunjathanga our village he coming first-at saw-not. Our village Mualkai-ā Mualkai-a Chalbongā ka nihu. in-a in-ā te Mualkai-ā Mvalkai's house-in Muulkai's Chalbongā Ι saw. Mualkai's house-in of Ka rui-dân-ve-le. Vunjāthangā tum-tak-in in-e. ka zu I Ι getting-drunk-when, Vunjāthangā drink much-veru drank. he Lienbikā nhen, kan Mualkai-ā in-ā in-hao-e. lo-hong-ā. Mualkai's house-in Lienbikā with, mutually-quarrelled. we arrived-(came-in). kal, tūn-e-mo vel-e. ka ũ Thiltlang-ā a Mhānā Formerly my eldest-brother Thiltlang-to he went, someone beat-him. Lienbika tel-ve-e. Lienbika Vunjāthangā pok a nhenā kan in-hao-vin. Vunjāthangā even he mixed-himself-up. Lienbikā we quarrelling, with Nakin-devā Mualkai an, in-haole Vunjāthangā ka-beng-ā. Muulkai he, 'you-quar-Later-on Vunjāthangā I-struck (with-the-hand). lei-lā-in-tīro,' min khat-in i zu tankā Va. drink buying-must-cause-to-drink,' me he-told. 404 rupee one-of relling zong-tūr-in ka kal-ā, ka dā. Ka lei-ā. Mualkai in-ä kan Zu went, I bought-it. Mualkai's house-in we put-it. Drink to-search-for I tin-tā. Zu kan siekthleng-in Vunjathanga Chalbonga le an Drink we preparedreaching Vunjāthangā and Chalbongā they had-scattered. 'Vunjāthangā nhen, in-hao-vā Chalbonga in Mualkai an. with, you having-quarrelled Chalbonga Mualkai he, Vunjāthangā having, Chalbongā Vunjäthangä fi. le va-ko-ro.' min Vunjāthangā Chalbongă and Vunjathanga and Vunjāthangā must-go-and-call,' me he-told. Tin in-ā ko-tur-in ka kal. Chalbonga Marlutā pā of-Ingai-lovi the-father Marluta's house-to to-call There Chalbonga 1 went. in-ang,' ka ti. kan 'Horo. ka kai-tovă. zu mu-ā drink-will,' 1 said. drink we ' Come. he sleeping I uroused-him. Tin Vunjāthangā ka ka kal-thei-loh-ve.' tī. rui-e: a 'Zu he said. Then Vunjathanga Ι By-drink I drunk-am; I go-cannot,' kai-tovā, 'ka du-loh-ve,' a tī. Voy tum-tak-in ka soam-ā, ka I urged-him, 'with-drink I aroused, 'I want-not,' he said. Times many

Chu-mi-lai-in kal-pe-loh-ve, kei tī. rui-e: ka  $\mathbf{a}$ po zu ka said.At-that-time 1 to-go-am-not-able,' he even with-drink I drunk-am; 1 lei-ā. a-thā-tak-in rui-ā. Anmāni-tā-tūrin ka ka I had-bought, good-way-very-in For-them drink1 was-drunk. Thing tī-in tin-ur-ā. ka mi-zui-du-loh-vā ka a kovā, A-stick called-them, me-follow-to-will-not saying I got-angry. I picked-up, vuak-e. Voy enjange ka vuak dik-tak-in ka ka I how-many struck exactly. I head-on Ι struck. TimesChalbongā a-ni-ange. Ka-vuak-lai-in Vov thum shoy-thei-loh. I-striking-time-at Times threeit-may-be. Chalbongā to-say-am-not-able. Vunjāthangā ka-vuak-in engtinge-a-om ka rhe-loh. chel-dân-e. Vunjāthangā my-striking-from how-he-was 1 know-not. me preventing-was. rhe-loh. Ka kal-ā. Koyā-nge ka kal ka tin ka tāng-hārā I 1 becoming-sober Where Ι wentknow-not, but I went-away. Vunjāthangā nhen VOY khat kan inpo i\_i ka om-e. ka time£ was. **V**unjāthangā with once even we mutuallyhouse-in my in-hao-vā. hao-lob. Zu rui vangin kan quarrelled. quarrelled-not. By-drink drunkbeing we

#### FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Statement of Nothanga, accused of culpable homicide.

I did not see Vunjathanga when he first came to our village. I saw Chalbonga in the house of Mualkai of our village. I drank much in Mualkai's house; he provided the liquor. Vunjathanga came into the house when I was getting drunk. I quarrelled with Lienbika of my village in Mualkai's house. My elder brother had gone some time back to Thiltlang village, where someone beat him. Vunjathanga entered into my quarrel with Lienbika. I struck Lienbika with my hand. I also struck Vunjathanga. Later Mualkai told me that as I had quarrelled in his house, I must give one rupee worth of liquor and treat them all. I went and searched for liquor, bought it and took it to Mualkai's house. When I got there Vunjathanga and Chalbonga had gone away. We prepared the liquor, and when it was ready Mualkai said I ought to fetch Chalbonga. and Vunjathanga as I had quarrelled with the latter. I went to fetch Vunjathanga and Chalbonga from the house of Marluta, father of Ingailovi. I found Chalbonga asleep and I awoke him and asked him to come and drink. He said he was drunk and could not come. I then aroused Vunjathanga; he also refused to come. I tried to persuade him, but he would not come, saying he was drunk. I myself was very drunk at the time, and getting very angry at his refusing to come, when it was on his account that I had hought the liquor, I picked up a piece of wood and struck him on the head, I cannot say exactly how many times. It may have been three times. Chalbonga tried to prevent me. I did not know the effect of n blows on Vunjathanga. I then went away, where, I cannot say, but on becoming sober I found myself in my own house. I have never had any former quarrel with Vunjathanga, and it was only because I was drunk that I quarrelled with him then.

#### NGENTE.

The Ngentë dialect is spoken in the South Lushai Hills, chiefly among the Tangluas who reside in the villages round Demagiri, and also in many of the Western Howlong villages. It has not been possible to get an estimate of the number of speakers. The term Howlong is, says Mr. Davis, 'used by us to denote one portion of the Lushai race, and was applied to the villages north and north-east of Lungleh and south of the Sailam, on account of one of the original chiefs of this section having had his village on the Howlong Hill. The people themselves do not, so far as I have been able to ascertain, recognise the name Howlong.' With regard to the Tangluas, Colonel Elles, in his Military Report on the Chin-Lushai country, makes the following statement:—

In 1871-72, when the first Lushai expedition took place, a Howlong chief named Rutton Peï had made a somewhat independent position for himself. He became an intermediary between Government and the people of his tribe, and figured for some time as an important personage. He founded a separate clan called Thanglua, of which his son Lalseva is the recognized head. The chiefs Labrhima and Tlangbuta, whose names appear in the Howlong genealogy, are also said to belong to this clan, as also Vannua and Vannua.

I am indebted to Mr. C. B. Drake-Brockman for the preparation of a translation of the Parable of the Prodigal Son in the Ngentë dialect. The following remarks on the grammar of this dialect are entirely based on the specimen. The translation is very careful, and Mr. Drake-Brockman has also accompanied it with a few valuable notes which have been incorporated in the grammatical sketch which follows.

**Pronunciation.**—The pronunciation seems to agree with that of Standard Lushëi. Final vowels are probably long, though the specimen does not mark them as such. A euphonic v is inserted between o and a following vowel; thus,  $heo - v - a - n\bar{c}$ , all-it-is. Final consonants are occasionally silent; thus, na and  $n\bar{a}t$ , to be; ta and  $t\bar{a}k$ , the suffix of the past tense. We apparently, in one instance, find an intransitive verb beginning with an unaspirated consonant while the initial consonant of the corresponding transitive is an aspirate. Thus, rhal, to squander; but ti-ral, to-cause-to-be-squandered, ti being the causative prefix. We find, however, also ti-rhal with the same meaning.

Articles.—The numeral pa-khat, one, is used as an indefinite article. Relative clauses supply the place of a definite article.

Nouns.—Gender.—Only one suffix denoting gender occurs,  $p\bar{a}$ , denoting male human beings. Thus, fa- $p\bar{a}$ , child-male, son.

Number.—The number is not marked when it appears from the context. The suffix ngai seems to be used to denote the plural in rual-cham-ngai, friends. The same suffix also occurs in Kōm, Hallām, Banjōgī, Pankhu, etc.

Case.—The formation of cases is the same as in Standard Lushei. The suffix of the agent is in; the locative is formed by adding in and a, etc. The genitive is expressed by putting the governed before the governing noun. An a may be inserted between both; thus, a fa u-pa-ber a ning a zar-a, his son the-eldest his heart it was angry.

Adjectives.—Adjectives follow the noun they qualify, and suffixes and post-positions are added to them and not to the qualified noun; thus, muang-tak-in, happiness-great in, happily. The suffix of the Comparative is zák, and that of the Superlative ber

A kind of superlative is also effected by repeating the adjective; thus, puan thatha, cloth good-good, the best cloth.

Pronouns.—The following forms of the Personal Pronouns occur:—

ka, I, my

i, thou, thy
a, he, it
nang-ma, thine
in, you
an, they their.

All these forms, with the exception of nang-ma, thine, are the short forms used as prefixes. Longer forms probably occur as in Lushēi.

Demonstrative pronouns.—He-ti, this, may be inferred from he-ti-a, here. The pronoun chu, that, only occurs as an emphasising addition to other words; thus, a pa-thun, his father.

There are no Relative pronouns. The root alone is used as a relative participle; thus, ka fin-lo-lei-in, I wise-not time-at; a pok-a-lei-in, he improvident-being-time-at, on account of his being improvident. It will be seen that this participle is treated as a verbal noun, preceding the qualified word without any suffix or with the addition of a. The word om-na, abode, is probably a relative participle; thus, a om-na khua mi-in, his abode village men with, lit., he being village men with, with the men of the village in which he stayed. A relative clause may also be formed by adding a verbal noun as an adjective; thus, i nao mi-thi, thy brother man-dead, thy brother who was dead.

Interrogative pronouns.—The only form which occurs is  $eng-\hat{a}$ , what? The same base eng, with the suffixes lo and  $k\hat{a}$ , is used as an Indefinite pronoun; thus, eng-lo, some, whatever;  $eng-k\hat{a}$ , everything.

Verbs.—The following pronominal prefixes occur:—

Ka, I; i, thou; in, you; a, he, it; an, they. The prefix in is also used to denote the second person singular in the respectful imperative; thus, in bol-roh, make me.

Thus, ka rhiat, I hear; a ti, he said. The suffixes a and ka may be added, apparently without changing the meaning; thus, ka om-a, I am; a nat-ka-chu, it is-indeed. The verb na or nat, preceded by a, is sometimes added to another verb in order to emphasise that the action really takes place. Thus, ang-ve-e-in a-chhem a-nat-ka-chu, like-both-among he-divided it-is-so, he divided indeed equally between the two; ka thi-thel-thel a na, I to-die-about-am it is, I am indeed about to die. Sometimes this form conveys the idea of a perfect; thus, a dam-le-ta a na, he became well again it is, he has become well again.

A Present definite is formed by adding the verb nat, to be, to the root; thus, an lām-nat-ka, they are dancing.

The suffix of the Past tenses is ta or  $t\bar{a}k$ ; thus, ka mhu-le-ta, I saw again; a kal-ta, he went; in mhu-le- $t\bar{a}k$  a-na, you saw again it is.

The suffix of the Future is in; thus, ka ti-in, I will say.

The suffix of the *Imperative* is *roh*, plural *roh-u*; thus, *lo-ngai-roh*, listen; *shen-tir-roh-u*, cause ye him to put on. *Shian* is added to *ro* in the third person; thus, *om-ro-shian*, let him remain. A suffix *i-u* apparently forms imperatives of the second and the third persons; thus, *fa-i-u*, let him eat; *om-i-u*, remain you all.

The root alone, without any suffix, is used as an Infinitive or Verbal noun. Thus, bu fak a tum-a, food to-eat he wished. This form is, as remarked above, also used as a

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relative participle. The locative postposition a is very commonly added to this form; thus,  $a \ kal-a \ a \ pa-in \ r\bar{\imath}l-a \ a \ mhu-a$ , his going-in his father distance-at he saw, while he was going his father saw him at a distance. This form is very commonly used as a conjunctive participle; see below. The suffix of the Infinitive of purpose is a, identical with the locative postposition. Thus,  $n\bar{a}$ -ti-zur a  $l\bar{u}k$ -a, harlots he getting-for, for the sake of harlots. In riem-zong, feasting-for, the particle zong seems to denote the purpose.

The suffix of the Adverbial participle is in; thus, bol-in in bol-roh, calling you call call me (your servant); tuan-tuan-in ka om-a, hard-working I am.

The suffix of the Conjunctive participle is a; thus, a khām-a khā dang-a a pēm-pui-dai, he gathered-having village other-to he migrated. Compare Verbal noun, above. A conjunctive participle of the future is apparently formed by adding the suffix ur; thus. ka pa kom-a ka kal-ur.... ka ti-in, my father to I-will-go-and.....I will-say. Compare the suffix tūr of the infinitive of purpose in Lushēi.

The Relative participle has been mentioned under Relative pronouns, above.

There is no Passive roice. Instead of 'he was seen again' we find 'I saw him again,' etc. When the subject of a transitive verb is not distinguished by the suffix of the agent, the meaning becomes passive. Thus, bu fāk-shen-lo-va a om-a, food eatentirely-not it was, there was so-much food that it could not be eaten up.

Compound verbs are freely formed in order to modify the meaning. Thus, háng-thlen, to-come-home-arrive, to come back; háng-chhuak, to-come-go-out, to come out; fák-shen, to-eat-finish, to eat up; pēm-pui-dai, to-go-help-outskirts, to bring to the outskirts of the village; tá-sual, to do evil, to commit (a sin). The prefix ti forms transitives; thus, ti-ral, to squander. Causatives are formed by adding tir; thus, bun-tir, to cause to put on. The verb nuam, to wish, forms desideratives; thus, a lut-nuam-lo, he to-enterwished-not. Other words used as the last part of compound verbs are khep, still, yet; le, again; thel-thel, to be about; zet, exceedingly, much; zo, all; zo, to be able, etc.

The Negative particle is lo; thus, a mhu-lo-va, he saw-not, he did not get.

# Order of Words.—As in standard Lushēi.

It will be seen that Ngentë very closely agrees with Standard Lushëi. The interrogative pronoun eng-á corresponds to eng-nge or eng-má in Lushëi. The particle ka added to the root in Ngentë does not seem to occur in the Standard. Lushëi has ni for Ngentë na, to be. The suffix of the future is ang in Lushëi, and in in Ngentë; Lushëi has tūr where Ngentë has ur, etc. But in all essential points both agree, and the difference is much smaller than usual between dialects in connected languages.

[No. 12,]

# TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

# KUKI-CHIN GROUP

### LUSHEI OR DULIEN.

NGENTE DIALECT.

(LUNGLEH, JUSHAI HILLS.)

### (C. B. Drake-Brockman, Esq., 1901.)

Mi-rhiam pa-khat-in fa-pā pa-nhit a-nei. Nao-pang-zâk-in a рa kom-a, Man 8048 two he-had. Son-younger his father 'Ka chanai in pe-roh-u.' tih. An pā-in 8üm ang-ve-ve-in 'My share you give,' he said. Their father property equal-both-among a-chhem a-nat-ka-chu. Na-ta-deo-va a pa sūm nao-pang-zâk-in he-divided it-is-indeed. Shortly-after his father's property son-younger khām-a khâ dang-a a pēm-pui-dai-a. A pok-a-lei-in 8 collected village migrated. He improvident-being his father's another-to he süm ti-ral-zo-va. sūm a A rhal-zo-ve-lei-na tām-kum a property he squandered-entirely. His property he squandered-all-when famine-year it tlāh. Fāk a-hang 1 a mhu-lo-va. Ren-vai lung-zing-a-lei-in occurred. Food indeed he saw-not. Poverty heart-sad-on-account-of om-na khua mi-in a tyan-tuan-in, a ren-vai-zet-in a koi-a-koi-a. A His abode village men-for he working-hard, he miserable-very he wandered.  $\mathbf{A}$ ren-vai-a-lei-in om-a. om-na mi-in dai-nhai-a an He miserable-on-account-of abode men village-outskirts-near pigs they was. rhung-tir-a. A ren-vai-a-lei-in a ril-tām a tuar-zo-lo-va. to-herd-sent. He miserable-on-account-of his hunger he to-bear-able-not-was, pigs' fāk a tum-a, mi-in an phal-lo. ' Ka fin-lo-lei-in ka food to-eat he wished, villagers they allowed-not. 'I wise-not-being my father's fāk-shen-lo-va a om-a, heti-a ka ril-tām-in ka om-a ka house-in food to-eat-completely-not there was, here I hungry  $\boldsymbol{I}$ 1 thi-thel-thel a na, a ti. Tui-chun ka pa kom-a ka kal-ur, "Pa-thian to-die-about-am it is,' he said. 'Now my father to I go-will, "God's mit-mhu-lai-in mi-poih ka tâ-sual-a. i fa-pā tlāk ka na-lo. and thy eye-sight-before evil I committed-have, thy son I am-not, fit chhiah-lhah bol-in in bol-roh," ka ti-in.' Heti-ang ti-in a pa kom-a making you make," I say-will.' This-like saying his father servant a kal-ta. A kal-a pa-in rāl-a a mhu-a, he went. He going-while his father distance-at he saw, his father he tlān-a a kai-kua a biang a phâ-sak-a. Tin fa-pā-in, Pa-thian leh i he embraced his cheek he kissed. ran Then the-son. ' God's and

A-kang cannot really be translated. It is equivalent to the Lushei prefix han.

fa-pā tlāk ka na-lo,' a ti-a mit-mhu-lai-in mi-poih ka tâ-sual-a, i eye-sight-before evil I committed-have, thy 80n fit I am-not,' he said. Eng-mhan-a-poih-lo a pa-chun a chhiah-lha kom-a, 'Puan tha-tha shin-tir-roh-u, Never-mind his father his servants to, 'Cloth good to-put-on-cause, kut-te-zem bun-tir-roh-u, phei-kok bun-tir-roh-u, muang-tak hlim-tak finger-rings to-put-on-cause, shoes to-put-on-cause, happiness-great rejoicing-great a ti-a, 'Ka fa-pā a kal-bo-va, thi-tluk-in ka ngai, remain-let-him,' he said, 'My son he lost-was, dead-like I thought, now muang-tak-in eng-kå fa-i-u,' a ti. I seen-again-have, happiness-great-in every-thing eat-let-him,' he said. Happinesstak-in an om-a. great-in they remained.

riak-a. A fa-pā u-pa-ber ram A thlen-zān-in a eng-lo His son eldest jungle-(in) he living-was. He arriving-night-time-at some tum-ri leh lām-ri a rhiat-a. A fa-pā u-pa-ber a hång-thlen-in music and dancing he heard. His son eldest he returning-arriving khâ-lai-a a chhiah-lhâh a ko-va, 'Eng-â in ti? in lām-ri leh kuanghe called, 'What you do? your dancing and drumvillage-at his servant ri ka rhiat." zàt-a. 'I nao dam-tak-in a hang-thlen-ta. a sound I hear,' he asked.'Thy younger-brother **s**afely he back-came. pa-in riem-a zu-a-zuk. lām-nat-ka. i an A he rejoicing-is drink-he-giving-is, they dancing-are.' thy father His8un a in-a a lut-nuam-lo.  $\mathbf{A}$ u-pa-ber a ning zar-a. a pa heart it angry-was, house-in he enter-liked-not. His father he eldest his pa, lo-ngai-roh, kum-khua-in he-ti-chenhâng-chhuak-a a thlēm. 'Ka he persuaded. 'My father, listen, came-out always this-timethu ka tuan-tuan-in ka om-a, i shēl-lo. ka rual-cham-ngai chin thy word I disobeyed-not, my working-hard I am, till friends riem-zong kel-te pa-khat påh in pe-lo; i fa-pā hâng-a nå-ti-zur even you gave-not; thy son came-back prostitutes onė feasting-for kid zu-i-zuk-khep-a,' a ti-rhal-zo-va, sūm-chang lāk-a he getting-for property-share he made-spent, beer-thou-to-drink-still-(gavest),' he said. 'Ka kom-a i om-zing-a; ka eng-lo chang-chang. father, 'Me with thou remainest-always; my whatever His property, mi-thi a nang ma hang heo-va-na; i nao dam-le-ta-a-na. thine indeed all-it-is; thy younger-brother man-dead he became-well-again-it-is, he bo-va tui-in in mhu-le-tāk-a-na, tui-chun muang-tak-in om-i-u.' lost-was now you saw-again-it-is, now happiness-great-in remain-you-all,' he said.

<sup>2</sup> Khā-lai means the open space just in front of a house, or the vacant space in a village.

### BANJÖGT.

The Banjogis are a small tribe residing in the Chakma and Boh Mong chiefs' circles in the Chittagong Hill Tracts. According to the Superintendent, the number of speakers is as follows:—

Chakma Boh Mong									
						To	TAL	•	800

The first mention of the tribe is found in an article by Surgeon Macrae, dated 24th January 1799, and mentioned under Authorities below. It is there stated that they often attacked the Kukis, over whom they always prevailed, owing to the fact that they were all united under one Rajah. The Kukis had even to pay an annual tribute of salt to them.

The fullest description of this tribe is that by Captain Lewin, which has been reproduced in an abridged form, by Sir W. W. Hunter. See Authorities below. Hunter says:—

'The Banjogi and Pankho tribes claim to be of common origin, sprung from two brothers, and in language, customs, and habits they exhibit a great similarity. These tribes are not numerically strong, and numbered, in 1869, according to Captain Lewin's estimate, about seven hundred houses, or three thousand souls. According to the census of 1872, there are only 305 Banjogis and 177 Pankhos living within the Chittagong Hill Tracts. There are three villages of Pankhos and one of Banjogis on the borders of the Karnaphuli, but the majority reside in the Bohmong's country to the east of the Sangu river. Their language strongly resembles that of the Lushëis or Kukis, and from their appearance they would be supposed, Captain Lewin states, to be an off-shoot of that tribe. They, however, affirm that they are sprung from the great Shān nation of Burmah, and some of their customs differ materially from those of the Lushëis or Kukis. The great distinction between the two tribes is in the mode of wearing the hair. The Pankhos bind their hair in a knot at the back of their head, but the Banjogis tie up their hair in a knot over the forehead.

'Their account of the creation and their own origin is curious, and was told to Captain Lewin as follows:-"Formerly our ancestors came out of a cave in the earth, and we had one great chief named Tlandrok-pah. He it was who first domesticated the gayal (cow); he was so powerful that he married God's daughter. . There were great festivities at the marriage, and Tlandrok-pah made God a present of a famous gun that he had. You can still hear the gun; the thunder is the sound of it. At the marriage our chief called all the animals to help to cut a road through the jungle to God's house, and they all gladly gave assistance to bring home the bride-all save the sloth (the huluk monkey is his grandson) and the earthworm; and on this account they were cursed, and cannot look on the sun without dying. The cave whence man first came out, is in the Lushāi country, close to Vanhuilen's village, of the Burdaiya tribe; it can be seen to this day, but no one can enter. If one listens outside, the deep notes of the gong and the sound of men's voices can still be heard. Some time after Tlandrok-pah's marriage, all the country became on fire, and God's daughter told us to come down to the aca where it is cool; that was how we first came into this country. At that time mankind and the birds and beasts all spoke one language. Then God's daughter complained to her father that her tribe were unable to kill the animals for food, as they talked and begged for life with pitiful words, making the hearts of men soft so that they could not slay them. On this, God took from the beasts and birds the power of speech, and food became plentiful among us. We eat every living thing that cannot speak. At that time also, when the great fire broke from the earth, the world became all dark, and mon broke up and scattered into clans and tribes. Their languages also became different. We have two gods: Patyen—he is the greatest; it was he who made the world. He lives in the west, and takes charge of the sun at night. Our other god is named Khozing; he is the patron of our tribe, and we are specially loved by him. The tiger is Khozing's house-dog, and he will not hurt us, because we are the children of his master."

'Although admitting the supremacy of one great god, the Pankhos and Banjogis offer no worship to him; all their reverence and sacrificial rites are directed towards Khozing, the patron deity of their nation. In some villages are men said to be marked out as a medium of intercourse between Khozing and his children. Such

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a possessed person is called Kon-rang. He becomes tilled with, and possessed by, the divine afflatus. During these moments of inspiration he is said to possess the gift of tangues, and to be invulnerable. Kon-rang receives no payment or other consideration, saving the honour accruing to him by his position as interpreter of the wishes and commands of Khozing. The god Khozing is said to have a village consewhere in the hills where he lives, but no mortal can enter it.

'In former times the rite of human sacrifice was common among these tribes; but although they still consider the practice very beneficial, and that great plenty would ensue from it, they are now prevented by fear of the Government. Their great eath is by  $d\bar{z}_0$ , spear, gun, and blood, and it is taken by the side of a river; it is a solemn undertaking, and one only to be performed on great occasions. Should a person disregard this eath he and his family will certainly die a violent death. On ordinary occasions, such as when anything is stolen from a village, an eath is taken on the chief's spear. The spear is struck into the ground at the gate of the village, and every one who passes has to take hold of it and swear that he knows nothing of the matter in question. Whoever will not thus swear, has to account for whatever may have been stolen.

'They have no festivals in the year, save one at the spronting of the young rice, when the supreme god Patyen, is implored to grant them a plentiful harvest. The Banjogis bury their dead; a chief being interred in a sitting posture. In the time of one of the Rājūs, Ngungjungnung, the Pankhos and Banjogis assert that they were the dominant and most numerous of all the tribes in this part of the world. They attribute the decline of their power to the dying out of the old stock of chiefs, to whom divine descent was attributed.'

The traditions of these tribes, as printed above, seem to indicate that they have immigrated into Chittagong from the Lushai Hills. The languages of the Banjögīs and the Pankhus seem to have been almost identical at the time when Captain Lewin wrote his account. They are related to Lushēi, but still more to the language of the Lais or Baungshès, this latter name being given to the Lais by the Burmese from the way they wear their hair done up in a knot on the fronts of their heads.

#### AUTHORITIES-

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LEWIN, CAPT. T. H.,—The Hill Tracts of Chittagong and the Dwellers therein; with Comparative Vocabularies of the Hill Dialects. Calcutta, 1869. Note on the Bunjogues and Pankhos, on pp. 95 and ff. Vocabularies, Bunjogi, Pankho, etc., on pp. 147 and ff.

HUNTER, W. W.,—A Statistical Account of Bengal. Vol. vi, London, 1876. Note on the Banjogi and Pankho Tribes on pp. 57 and ff.

A translation of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and a list of standard words of phrases have been received from Chittagong. Both are very corrupt. In the list of words I have corrected evident blunders so far as I could. The forms given by Captain Lewin have been added within parentheses. The specimen has been printed as I have got it. I have subjoined, in italies, a corrected text. This latter is given with the utmost reserve. The interlinear translation which was originally subjoined to the text was so faulty that I have been obliged to prepare a new one. The remarks on Banjögi grammar given below are based on the corrected text. There remain some passages which I have not been able to analyse, and in such cases the old translation has been printed. All this must be borne in mind in using the grammatical sketch.

• Pronunciation.—The list of words generally writes u before n where the specimen and cognate languages have a; thus, kun or kan, we; nung or nang, thou. Lewin writes nung-ma, but  $nangmat\bar{a}$ . Both spellings represent the sound of u in English 'but'. I have written a throughout. There is also some uncertainty about the pronunciation of other vowels. Thus we find the same words written leh, lah, and la;  $p\bar{e}k$  and pa;  $\bar{a}i$  and  $\bar{a}i$ ;  $j\bar{o}i$  and zeii;  $t\bar{o}n\bar{a}$  and  $t\bar{u}anai$ ;  $k\bar{o}$ -chon,  $k\bar{o}$ -chuy $\bar{a}n$ , and ka-choan;  $n\bar{a}k$ -shwey and nakse, etc.

The final consonant, is often dropped; e.g., the k in  $p\bar{e}k$ , to give. This is a well-known fact also in other languages of the group. J and z occur in the same words; thus, joi

and zei, what? The pronunciation is probably z in both cases. Sh, ch and s seem to be interchangeable; thus, shi and si, to be;  $chin-\bar{a}$  and  $shin-\bar{a}$ , from. Ki once occurs instead of khi, that, etc.

Articles.—There are no articles. The numeral pa-khat, one, is used as an indefinite article, and demonstrative pronouns or relative clauses supply the place of a definite article. Thus, ma-nu pa-khat, a man; hi in- $\bar{a}$ , this house-in, in the house;  $v\bar{o}k$ - $\bar{a}i$ -mi  $\bar{a}i$ - $ch\bar{a}$ -la, pigs-by-eaten-being food-by, by the food which the pigs ate.

**Nouns.**—Nouns denoting relationship or parts of the body are usually preceded by the prefix  $k\bar{a}$  in the list of words. This  $k\bar{a}$  is, however, probably the possessive pronoun of the first person, Banjögīs being, like most other connected tribes, incapable of conceiving the idea of such words without reference to some person. See Introduction, pp 15 and ff.

Gender is only apparent in the case of animate beings. It may be distinguished by using different words; thus,  $p\bar{a}$ , father;  $n\bar{u}$ , mother: mi- $n\bar{u}ng$ , man;  $n\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{a}$ , woman. The common suffixes are, in the case of human beings,  $p\bar{a}$ , male; and  $n\bar{u}$ , female. In the case of animals they are  $ch\bar{a}l$ , male,  $n\bar{u}$  and  $n\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{a}$ , female. Thus,  $f\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$ , son;  $f\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{u}$ , daughter: rang, or rang- $ch\bar{a}l$ , horse; rang  $n\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{a}$ , mare:  $k\bar{e}l$   $ch\bar{a}l$ , a he goat;  $k\bar{e}l$   $\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{u}$ , a she goat. The suffix  $p\bar{a}$  seems also to be used to denote male animals; thus,  $k\bar{e}l$ - $p\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{e}$ , goat-male-young, a kid.

Number.—The number of a noun is not denoted when it appears from the context. The plural may be marked by adding some word meaning 'many,' such as  $t\bar{a}m$  and  $ng\bar{a}i$ . Both may be combined; thus,  $k\bar{a}$   $p\bar{a}$   $t\bar{a}m$   $ng\bar{a}i$ , fathers.  $Ng\bar{a}i$  may apparently be added to the verb; thus,  $\bar{a}n$ -ni-khi  $\bar{a}n$   $\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{o}m$ - $ng\bar{a}i$ , they they made-merry. It seems to mean 'many,' 'very.'

Case.—The Nominative and the Accusative do not take any suffix. The suffix ni denoting the agent, is usually added to the subject of a transitive verb; thus,  $n\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$ -ni a sim-thuth, thy father he feast-gives. The list of words translates  $m\bar{i}$  sā pa-khat-ni, from a good man, instead of 'by a good man.' The Genitive is expressed by putting the governed before the governing noun; thus,  $k\bar{a}$   $p\bar{a}$   $b\bar{u}$ - $l\bar{o}$ -mi- $t\bar{o}$ n-a, my father's servants to. In the Vocative,  $m\bar{o}$  may be prefixed to the noun, as is also the case in Lai. Thus,  $m\bar{o}$   $p\bar{a}$ , O father. Other relations are expressed by means of postpositions, such as:  $\bar{a}$ , in, to; chin- $\bar{a}$ , from, to; dūng, behind; hen, with, to; hi, among, with; in, with, in, through; lag- $\bar{a}$ , with, to;  $l\bar{a}$ n- $\bar{a}$ , before; la, with, by means of;  $n\bar{u}\bar{a}$ , behind;  $s\bar{u}$ ng- $\bar{a}$ , into;  $t\bar{a}$ ng- $\bar{a}$ , under;  $t\bar{e}$ a, in; til- $\bar{a}$ , to;  $tl\bar{u}$ n- $\bar{a}$ , on; tok-in, from;  $t\bar{o}$ n- $\bar{a}$ , before, to;  $v\bar{a}$ ng- $\bar{a}$ , for the sake of, etc.

Adjectives.—Adjectives generally follow, but occasionally precede, the noun they qualify. Postpositions and suffixes are added to the adjective, and not to the qualified noun, it the adjective follows. Thus,  $mi \ s\bar{a} - t\bar{a}k \ chin - \bar{a}$ , from a good man;  $l\bar{a}m \ l\bar{a} - t\bar{a}$ , way far;  $mi - d\bar{a}ng \ pa - khat \ khua$ , other one village, another village.  $T\bar{a}k$  in  $s\bar{a} - t\bar{a}k$  and  $t\bar{a}$  in  $l\bar{a} - t\bar{a}$ , is an adverb meaning very.  $A - s\bar{a} - lo - mi \ n\bar{u}n\bar{a}$ , a bad woman, is a relative phrase; see relative pronouns, below.

The suffix of comparison seems to be  $ng\bar{a}k$ -in, and dau, corresponding to Lai  $d\bar{e}yu$  and Lushëi deo, is added to the adjective. Thus,  $\bar{a}$ -ni  $ng\bar{a}k$ -in hi hi sang-dau, him than this taller.  $Ng\bar{a}k$ -in corresponds to Lai  $n\bar{a}k$ -in. The list of words also denotes the

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comparative and the superlative by adding agai, very; thus, vi-vi-vari, house, and that.

Another suffix of the superlative seems to be khūn; thus, vi-ky be-kūku, higher.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. Pa in parklad, once etc., is probably a generic prefix. When the vowel of the following syllable is it plants be substituted for pa; thus, pi-li, but in Captain Lewin's list parklader. The numerals parka, ten, and kūl, twenty, are identical with the forms in Lai, while from, ten, and tennesis, twenty, in Captain Lewin's list, correspond to the forms used in Lushei and connected languages. Numerals usually follow, but occasionally precede, the noun they qualify.

**Pronouns.**—The following are the *Personal pronouns*:—Singular,—

kẽi-mã, kẽi, I.nang-mã, nang, thou. $\bar{a}$ -mã,  $\bar{a}$ -ni, au, he.kẽi-ma, kã, my.nung-mã, nang, nã, thy. $\bar{a}$ -ni.  $\bar{a}$ , his.kẽi-mã-tã, mine.nang-i, nang-mã-ta, thine.

Plural,-

kan-mā, kan-ni, kan, we, nan-ma, nang-ni, nan, you, an-ni, they.
our.
your.

These forms have been collected from the following sources. Captain Lewin gives the forms  $k\bar{e}i$ - $m\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$ , mine, and nang- $m\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$ , thine. The rest are found in the specimen and in the list of words. In this latter source the personal pronouns are given twice, in Nos. 14-31, and in Nos. 156-161. The forms nang-i, thine; kan-ni, we; nan-ni, you; and an-ni, they, are the same as in Lai. Demonstrative pronouns may be added to the personal ones, in order to emphasise; thus,  $k\bar{e}i$ - $ch\bar{u}$ , I;  $\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$ -khi, he, etc. Demonstrative pronouns are also often used as personal pronouns of the third person. The short forms  $k\bar{a}$ , kan;  $n\bar{a}$ , nan;  $\bar{a}$ , an, are probably all possessive pronouns, and are also used as pronominal prefixes with verbs. See below. The usual suffixes and postpositions may be added to the personal pronouns; thus,  $n\bar{a}ng$ - $m\bar{a}$ -ni  $p\bar{o}i$   $n\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{e}k$ , thou a-feast gavest; nang- $m\bar{a}$ -la, with thee, etc.

The following Demonstrative pronouns occur:—hi or hi—hi, this; khi or khi—khi, that; chu or chu—chu, that. The personal pronoun of the third person may also be used as a demonstrative pronoun. Thus, hi rang, this horse; hi fū hi, this son; khi ting tāng-ā, that tree under, etc.

There are no Relative pronouns. They are expressed in the same way as in Lai by means of relative participles, formed by adding a suilix mi; thus,  $v\bar{o}k$ - $\bar{a}i$ -mi  $\bar{a}i$ -cha-la, pigs-by-eaten food-with, with the food which the pigs ate;  $k\bar{a}$ - $ch\bar{o}a\bar{n}$ -mi  $\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{o}$ , me-by-done evil, what I have done is bad, I have sinned;  $k\bar{e}i$   $k\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{o}ng$ -ding-mi, that which I shall get. It will be seen that such relative participles may be used as substantives. The suffix mi is probably the demonstrative pronoun mi, that, which occurs in several cognate languages. It is perhaps identical with mi, man, which we find in bu- $l\bar{o}$ -mi, servant. Relative clauses may also be formed by using the noun of agency or the root as a verbal noun; thus,  $n\bar{a}$ - $f\bar{a}$   $ch\bar{u}$   $\bar{a}$ -thil  $\bar{a}$ -ral-khat- $t\bar{u}$ , thy son his property wasted-who;  $\bar{a}$ - $h\bar{o}ng$  law- $\bar{a}$ , his-coming-time-at, at the time when he came. Compare Relative participles, below.

The following Interrogative pronouns occur:—āo-sā, ā-sā, or ā-tsā, who? āo, zei or zei-men, what? zei-tomē or zē-rūn-tla, why? zē-zā-sā, how many? zé-zān-sā, how far?

Thus,  $\bar{a}$ - $f\bar{a}$ - $ts\bar{a}$ , whose-son?  $\bar{a}$ -shin- $s\bar{a}$ , whom from? zei-men nan- $t\bar{\imath}$ , what (do) you do? etc.

The following Indefinite pronouns occur: - ang-khōm, anyone; zei-khōm, anything.

**Verbs.**—Verbs are conjugated in person and number by means of pronominal prefixes. These are:— $k\bar{a}$ , I; kan, we:  $n\bar{a}$ , thou; nan, you:  $\bar{a}$ , he, she, it; an, they. The list of words gives some other forms; thus,  $n\bar{e}$ , thou; o, he; but the above set seems to be the regular one. The prefixes are occasionally dropped, but I have been unable to see any rule for their use.

The root alone, without any suffix, is freely used to denote present and past tenses. Thus, zei-men nan ti, what do you do?  $\bar{a}$ -m $\bar{a}$ -ni  $\bar{a}$ -sim, he said; khi ting  $t\bar{a}$ ng- $\bar{a}$  rang- $k\bar{e}$ ng  $tl\bar{u}$ n- $\bar{a}$   $\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$ 0, that tree under horse-back on he-is-sitting;  $t\bar{u}$ - $ts\bar{u}$ n  $l\bar{a}$ m  $l\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$   $k\bar{a}$ - $to\hat{i}$ 0, to-day way far I have walked. By inserting  $t\bar{u}$ - $\bar{a}$ 0, now, and  $t\bar{u}$ an- $\bar{a}$ 0, formerly, before the verb, a present definite and an imperfect is effected. Thus,  $k\bar{e}i$ - $m\bar{a}$ -ni  $t\bar{u}$ -a0,  $k\bar{a}$ - $v\bar{u}$ ak, I am beating;  $k\bar{e}i$ - $m\bar{a}$ -ni  $t\bar{u}$ an-a1,  $t\bar{u}$ an-a2,  $t\bar{a}$ - $v\bar{u}$ ak, I was beating.

The suffix of the *Past tenses* is ro; thus,  $k\bar{e}i$ - $m\bar{a}$   $k\bar{a}$ -kal-ro, I went. The prefix  $k\bar{a}$  seems to denote the past in  $k\bar{a}$ -sim, he said;  $k\bar{a}$ -thai, he heard. In  $k\bar{e}i$   $ch\bar{u}$ -tini si, I was,  $ch\bar{u}$ -tini seems to mean 'then.'  $\bar{A}$ -kal-vin, he went, is probably a compound verb; compare Lai  $v\bar{u}ng$ , to set out, to start. Thus,  $\bar{a}$ -kal-vin, he set out to go.

The suffix of the Future is lai, as in Lai. Thus,  $k\bar{e}i\text{-}m\bar{a}$   $k\bar{a}$  si-lai, I shall be;  $k\bar{a}$  kal lai, I will go; kan ai-lai, we will eat, let us eat. This form is also used in the specimen in the sentence  $\bar{a}\text{-}p\bar{o}\text{-}khop\text{-}lai$ , he would fill his stomach. The intended meaning seems to be 'he was about filling his stomach.' The future is used to denote what possibly takes place in  $k\bar{e}i$   $\bar{a}$  shi-lai, probably for  $k\bar{e}i$   $k\bar{a}$  shi-lai, I may be, that is to say: it may be that I am. Compare Compound verbs, below. The form ending in lai is also translated as an infinitive and as a past participle in the list; thus,  $k\bar{a}$   $v\bar{u}ak\text{-}lai$ , to beat;  $\bar{a}\text{-}v\bar{u}ak\text{-}si\text{-}lai$ , having beaten.  $K\bar{a}$  kal-lai, I go, shows that the suffix lai is also used to denote the present tense. Compare the corresponding suffix lai in Aimol, Chiru, etc.  $K\bar{a}\text{-}v\bar{u}ak\text{-}lai$  thus means 'my-beating-is,' and  $\bar{a}\text{-}v\bar{u}ak\text{-}si\text{-}lai$ , his-beating-will-be, it will be the case that he has struck.

The Imperative mood may be expressed by using the root alone; thus,  $h\bar{o}ng$ -pu, bring;  $v\bar{u}a$ , strike;  $h\bar{o}ng$ - $k\bar{a}$ -pa, give me. The suffixes o or u, and ro, and the prefix va, are also used to form imperatives. Thus, ai-tar-o, cause him to wear; ruk-u, put on;  $h\bar{o}ng$ - $k\bar{a}$ -mang-ro, make me;  $h\bar{o}ng$ -ro, come; va- $p\bar{e}$ , give; va- $l\bar{a}$ , take; va-kal, go. Instead of ro we sometimes find ra, i.e., probably  $r\hat{a}$ ; thus, va-ra, beat.

The root alone, without any suffix, is also used as an Infinitive or Verbal noun; thus  $\bar{a}$  h\overline{n} \overline{a} \text{his-coming-time-at}, his-coming-hefore, before he arrived. In one place this form seems to be used as an infinitive of pur pose; thus,  $k\bar{a}$ -koi-p\overline{a} hen kan-p\overline{a}n, my friends with our feasting for, in order that I might feast with my friends.  $P\bar{a}n$  perhaps contains a suffix corresponding to Lushei ang. The usual suffix of the infinitive of purpose is, however, ding. Thus,  $\bar{a}$ -ding um-l\overline{o}, to eat there was not;  $p\bar{e}k$ -ding, giving for, to spare;  $n\bar{a}$  f\overline{a} si-ding  $k\bar{a}$ -d\overline{o}-l\overline{o}, thy son to-be 1-worthy-not-am. It will be seen that this infinitive has also the force of a verbal noun. Still more this is the case in  $k\bar{u}i$   $k\bar{a}$ -t\overline{o}ng-mi, milli recipiendum quod, my share; nang-m\overline{a} tin-din, thy share.

Participles. - The suffix in seems to form Adverbial participles; thus, dam-in, safe-

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being, alive. The list of words gives ā-vūak-zia, beating, and kal-ro. gone. Relative participles are formed by adding mi. See Relative pronouns, above. The verb um, to be, is written umi in this form; thus, mi-dāng-tōn ā umi, the-other-to being what, what the other had. Compare also Infinitive, above. Conjunctive participles are formed by adding the suffixes ā, leh or la, and nā. Thus, kā kal-ā, I going, I will go and; ā-ni then-run-la in sung-ā lu-du-lō, he getting angry house into enter-would-not; ā kō-la ā dāi, he calling he asked; ā-ni ā-thōk-leh ā-pā tān-ā ā-kalvin, he he arising his father to he went; mī-dāng tōn-ā umi ā-ni pi-ni-khi ka-pēk-nā, tan-ā-tlai lān-ā ā-nak-se-mi ā-kal-vin, the other to being he two given-having, days-short after the-younger went, when the other one had given all what he had to the two, the younger one went.

A Noun of agency is formed by adding the suffix tu; thus,  $k\bar{e}l$ -bul-tu, a shep-herd; ral-khat-tu, a waster.

Passive voice.—There is only one instance in the specimen: khi-khi ā-tlawu-leh kan-tōng-nōl, he having been lost was found again by us. The form does not differ from the active, but the subject is not distinguished by the suffix of the agent. The list of words gives the following forms: an hanga vūak, I am struck; en kā vūak-ro, I was struck; vūak kā dan-lai, I shall be struck. The last form seems to mean 'I shall get strokes.'

Compound verbs are freely used. The prefix hong denotes motion towards the speaker; na, motion from the speaker. Thus, hong-pu, bring here; na-fon (Lai in-fūn), to go and join. Causatives are formed by adding tar or ter (Lai thar): thus, ai-tar (Lai oi-thar), to cause to wear; kal-ter, to cause to go, to send. The verb du, to wish, is added to form Desideratives; thus, in sung-ā lu-du-lō, he did not wish to enter into the house. The suffix kho (Lai ko) denotes ability; thus, kēi-mā-ni kā vūak-kho-lai, I can beat, I may beat. Nol means 'again'; thus, kan-tōng-nōl, he was found again. Zek means 'much'; thus, kan ā-lom zek-lai, we will feast much, etc.

The Negative particle is  $l\bar{o}$ ; thus,  $\bar{a}$ -du- $l\bar{o}$ , he does not wish;  $\bar{a}$ -shi- $l\bar{o}$ , it is not, no.

Adjectives may be used as verbs; thus,  $\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{o}$ , it is bad. Verbs seem also to be formed from other words by adding th, as in Lai. Thus,  $r\bar{a}$ -lathpin, being far, from  $l\bar{a}$ , far; sim-thuth, to feast, compare Lai  $saum\ th\bar{u}k$ , a feast.

The usual Order of words seems to be subject, direct object, indirect object, verb. There are, however, many instances of a different order. But so long as we have not got a trustworthy text it would be unsafe to go into details.

[No. 13.]

# TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

# KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

### BANJÖGĪ.

(CHITTAGONG HILL TRACTS.)

pini um. Fā pini lagā ā-naksemi kāpā kāsim. Manu pakhat lagā fā Manu pa-khat lag-ā fā-pā pi-ni um. Fā pi-ni lag-ā ā-nak-se-mi  $\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$ kā-sim. Sons two his-father-(to) two were. ο£ young-the with sons said, kāi hong kāpa.' Midangtonā umi pinekhi ' Mopā, kätong dingme āni · Mō-pā, kēi kā-tōng-ding-mi hōng-kā-pa.' Mī-dāng-tōn-ā um-mi ā-ni pi-ni-khi The-other-to 'O-father.' I-receive-shall-what here-me-give.' being he two-them afornolla kapēknā. tanatlailanah ānaksemi ātāngleh midāng pakhat  $\bar{a}$ -for-nol-la ka-pēk-nā, tan-ā-tlai-lān-ā ā-nak-se-mi ā-tāng-leh mī-dāna pa-khat given-having, all he-gathering-again other time-short-after young-the khoah akala tāmdau hao. Ahao khupla akalvin. Khina āneh ānuāh ā-kal-vin. Khin-ā ā-kal-ā tām-dau ā-hao. A-hao-khup-la khua ā-mi ā-ทกัล he-going much-very he-wasted. He-wasted-all-when village he-went. There that after ani Anitonā joykum um-lo. Khi khoa rāmā āpāmla ading umlo. um-lō. ā-ni rām-ā  $ar{A}$ -ni-tön  $ar{a}$ Khi khua  $\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}m$ -la $\bar{a}$ -ding um-lō. zei-khōm That that country-in famine-being eating-for was-not. Him-to anything was not. village-of mihen ānafon. nākā faisānā äncälter. Chumi nungchu Chumi nungchu vok mi-hen ä-na-tön. Chu-mi-nung-chu võk nāk-ā faisān-ā an-kal-ter. Chu-mi-nung-chu man-with he-joined. fields-to That-man-that That-man-that pigs to-tend he-sent. Khikhi āmācilāh vokāimi āichala Angkhomni apokhoplai. ading palo. vōk-āi-mi āi-chā-la ā-pō-khop-lai. Ang-khōm-ni ā-ding pa-lō. Khi-khi ā-mā-til-ā food-with He himself-to pigs-eaten he-belly-fill-would. Anvone eat-to gave-not-'Kāpā um, pekding, kāichu kābu chāmin ásin, bulomitona sāng atampe ā-sim, 'Kā-pā bu-lo-mi-ton-ā sāng ā-tam-pi-um, pēk-ding, kēi-chu kā-bu-chām-in be-said, 'My father's servants-to bread much-is. give-to, hunger-with kathelai. Kapatona kāichu kakallai, kāpātona kasimlai. 'Mopā, ' Mō-pā, kā-thi-lai. kā-kal-lai, kā-pā-ton-ā Kā-pā-tōn-ā kēi-chu kā-sim-lai. my-father-to I-to-die-am-about. My-father-to 'O-father, I-go-will I-say-will, kocnonmi asalo kadolou. khujinne adulō. nāng fā siding nangmātona kā-chōn-mi ā-sā-lo Khū-zin-ni kā-dō-lō. ā-du-lō, nang-mā-tōn-ā nang fā si-dina me-by-done evil-is, be-to I-worthy-not-am, God he-likes-not. thee-to thy aos kaichu buloa hongkhāmangro."" ākalvin. Ani athokleh apā tona kēi-chu bu-lo-ā  $\bar{a}$ -kal-vin. hõng-kā-mang-rō." A-ni ā-thok-leh ā-pā tōn-ā servants-among me-make." he-went. Ħе he-arising his-father to Atlünglanah ralathpin adathnol. āfā āpāni āmu. Amukan ăpăni Ā-tlūng-lān-ā ā-dath-nōl, rā-lath-pin Ā-mū-kana **ā-**pā-**ni** ā-fā ā-pā-ni ā-mū. He-came-before far-very-being his-son his-father-by he-saw. His-seeing-after his-father he-pardoned, aniki ateklah, Āfāni afani anikhi ānānim. loāng gna aiboth. A-fā-m ā-ni-khi ā-tek-la, ā-fā-ni ā-ni-khi ā-nā-nim. loang-ā ā-iboth. he-running, his-son-by he-kissed. His-son shoulder-on he-prostrated-himself, him

āpāsim. · Pā knober mer 3. Regions. . adela, n'ingno ā-pā ā-sim,  $^{\epsilon}P_{G}$ 9-1-17-15-16-16 @+17-15. Klastineni in lielo. Mang-na-ton-a his-father-to he-said, Father Mary 15 12 min P. ... (31 : 10-21-54 \$ (per +4+) kaichu nafa siding kadoloa." Alani Infola 'Ninumi Bir. manpoan kēi-chu nū-fā si-ding kö-46-16. A-pa-ni ba-la-la a-sim. A 111. 2-1.2 นลท-ออลัง Ι thy-sen be-to I-weathy-nat-am." Hi-father sen oneto ho-sali, 30 āsāmi hongpu, amakhi aitaroakudona Lijung ronte, alimin faikok ā-sā-mi hong-pu, ā-mā-khi ai-tur-o, ē-ku-dong-ā pi-zaug vak-ī, ā-ke-ā fili-lok good-what bring. Lim transferance of a middle of the 22.02 77.25 Hawart o. ruku, kālu. kaimā kanai lai kānājom jeklāi. Liron Jah. kaju wheleh. ruk-u, kal-u, kan-āi-lai, kan-ā-lūm-zek-tei, hi-re-ing-ā, kan-mā 3.5. 16 a-thi-lek We-923-19111 wirdenstrum hirman to test an interferig my-5 m le-dief-laying anungnol, atlawuleh kantong nol. Aniki ān-lomganī, ā-nung-nol, ā-tlau-leh kan-tong-no?? An-ni-kki an ich ingii. he-revived-again, he-lost-leing by-u-found-again-b. T .... بعطاه فولاك فيعاد Tuwā afā opami faisan ah um. Amaki line want. awerd (17.19) lam ā-fā ū-pā-mi faison-ö In William Roll 21119 2 - 230 Feb. 6. કોન્કાનાકા*ઇન્ટેશકદના*ય lane Then BUD elder-the field--in Wes. Fa. .. CT .L 5. ... an elim in technication dance ādāng tomhow kathai. Amāni majur ral.ha: akomb sodi, 'Joimen nanti P' ā-dāng tōm-hau ka-thāi. A-mā-ni mu-zur pa-khai a-ko-m a-dei, Zei-men nan-ti?' music he-heard. Hе vervan. es is. I coulding E-maked, · V Bal Majurni khikhi asim, 'Nā nãoma al litte in ាររៀវគឺគរ rsim thuth, hiro angah Ma-zur-ni khi-khi ā-sim, 'Nā ทลิง-วงลั del day, we-plant vesimethoth, hi-re-ung-a Servant he-said, 'Thy younger-britler in-carne, Log-Parer De-fees .- muches, this-reason-for, āmāki damin atlumla.' Ani thiarunia in sungna ludulo. Apa ā-mā-khi dam-in ā-tlūng-la.' A-m thin ran-la 212 Bury-it tu-elu-lo.  $ar{A}$ - $nar{a}$ safe he-came-back." He Blight - malt biet in the freiter India. to-enter-wished-not. His-father lagna suah la alem. ägiäenu Amani asim, 'Kaichu kombloujan narayan lang-a suah-la ũ-lem. A-mā-ni a-po-che: ā-sim, 'Kēi-chu kom-blo-zān nā-rayan coming he-entreated. He his-lattice- to; he--wia, ٠. ٢ Years-many thy-work kochuyan, kaichu nang thu kaal loh, chuvangah kakoi pahen kānpān kā-chūān, kēi-chu nang-thu kü-ul-lö. chu-vāny-ā kā-koi-pā-hen kan-pān I-did, 1 thy-word I-disobeyed-not, yet my-friends-with our-feasting-for kelpateh khom nang akaplu, nafachu alonu tona munkhat ten athil kēl-pā-tē khōm nang a-kā-pa-lō, na-fā-chu ā-lo-nū tōn-ā mun-khai-in ā-thil kid even thou me-gavest-not, thy-son-that harlots with together his-property aralkhattu ama vāngā nangmani poi napek.' Āpāni àfā asin. ā-ral-khat-tu ã-mä vāng-ū nang-mā-ni poinā-pēk.' A-pā-ni ā-fā  $\bar{a}$ -sim. he-spent-entirely-who him for thou feast thou-givest.' His-father his-son-(to) he-said, 'Nang mala mun khatin kan-um. Kaima tona jajong  $\mathbf{umi}$ ektin nangma ' Nang-mā-la mun-khat-in kan-um. Kēi-mā ton-ā za-zong um-mi ektin nang-mā ' Thee-with together We-are. Щe whatever to being all thy tindin, nān**g kānmā**hi kānpānlai konarem jeklai churoangyah nānā opā tin-din, nang kan-mā-hi kan-pān-lai kan-ā-rem-zek-lai chu-ro-ang-a nā-nāo-pā property, thou us-with we-feast-will we-merry-make-much-will that-reason-for thy-younger-brother athi lāh anung nol, khikhi atlawuleh kantongnol.' ā-thi-la ā-nung-nöl. khi-khi ..- toun ich kan-tong-not. he-died-having he-revived-again, he-lost being by-us-found-ugain-is."

### PĀNKHŪ.

Pānkhū is spoken in the Chakma and Boh Mong chiefs' circles in the Chittagong Hill Tracts. The following are the numbers of speakers:—

Chakma Boh Mong	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	200 300
									To	TAL	500

Further particulars and a list of authorities will be found under Banjogi.

A translation of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and a list of standard words and phrases have been received from Chittagong. They are full of mistakes, and I have not been able to correct them satisfactorily. In the list of words I have added the corresponding forms from Captain Lewin's list, within parentheses. The interlinear translation has been added by me, and is, in a few places, very uncertain. The notes on Pānkhū grammar given below are founded on the forms occurring in the specimen and in the list of words. They are given with the utmost reserve.

The same inconsistency prevails with regard to consonants. Thus ch, chh, ts, sh, and s, are all interchangeable. We find for instance  $ch\bar{u}ng$  and  $chh\bar{u}ng$ , in;  $chh\bar{u}m$ ,  $ts\bar{u}m$ , and  $s\bar{u}m$ , property; chhia-lo and shea-lo, servant;  $\bar{a}r$ -chi and  $\bar{a}r$ -si, star;  $ch\bar{u}a$ - $p\bar{u}i$  and  $s\bar{u}a$ - $p\bar{u}i$ , brother, etc. Chh is probably only another way of writing s, and this sound or sh is probably the sound intended. Ch and ph are interchanged in char- $n\bar{u}$  and phar- $n\bar{u}$ , sister. J is probably pronounced s, and sometimes s is also written. Thus, s and s are s, to strike. The pronunciation of s cannot be ascertained. It is occasionally interchanged with s and s and s and s and s and s are s and s arrive. In Southern Chin according to s are thoughton, s regularly corresponds to s in Lushei, and the occurrence of both in s and s are due to the double influence of the two former languages. The sound s is also interchangeable with s in Lai.

The writing of aspirated letters is also very inconsistent. The prefix pa in the first numerals is generally written pha; thus  $pha-k\bar{a}t$ , one. In the same way we find the male suffix  $p\bar{a}$  written  $ph\bar{a}$  in  $n\bar{a}o-ph\bar{a}$ , younger brother; but  $\bar{u}-p\bar{a}$ , elder brother. The sound is probably the same as that of the English p. In other words ph seems to be written for f; thus,  $phar-n\bar{u}$ , sister. In the same way k is interchanged with kh; t with th; t with t

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Concurrent consonants may be assimilated: thus, there he for the teles, one.

K is silent in proven give; but depole to have : he or he as helong I have.

Consonants are sometimes dealed that were would thus  $ka_{T}p\bar{a}$  or  $k\bar{a}\cdot p\bar{a}$ , my father;  $k\bar{a}_{II}a\bar{a}g$ , back, i.e.,  $k\bar{b}\cdot \bar{a}gg$ , my back the i, is the last, etc. The d in an-d-riem, he was friendly, seems to be neighbories.

Articles.—The numeral  $kh\delta t + k\bar{t}$ , one, is used as an indefinite raticle. Definiteness is marked by using demonstrative properties or relative classes. Thus, mi-view  $kh\delta k + k\bar{t}$ , man one, a man;  $a - m\bar{a}$  inn- $\bar{a}$ , that house in, he the houses  $\bar{a} + k\bar{a} + n\bar{c}$  volume, he gone-having hill, the hill into which he had gone. In the list it words the satisfact  $k\bar{a}$  in  $kh\bar{a}t + k\bar{a}$  is once used alone as an indefinite article; thus  $p\bar{a} + k\bar{a}$ , a father.

Nouns.—Gender seems only to be apparent in the case of animate beings. It is sometimes distinguished by using different words. Thus, pā, tather, nā, mother: miriem, man; nā-nā, woman. The list of words gives phāṇṇā, man; phā-nā, woman. Pā is the common male suilix, and not the corresponding namale one. Thus mi-pā, man and probably mi-nā, woman; āi pā, dog; āi nā, bitch. Another set of sulfixes is chāl, male, and (ā-)pāi, female. Thus, cha-pā cada, bull; cho-pā a-pāi, cow: sā-ki chāl, a male deer; sā-ki pāi, a female deer. Also tieng accurs as a male, and nā-nāo as a female suffix; thus, āi thang ngei-pā, dogs; cho-pā nā-nāo, a caw. It is also possible to add the noun the gender of which is indicated as an adjective to some word meaning male or female being. Thus, mi-pā nāo, man child, son; nā-nā nāo, woman child, daughter; nā-nāo khāk-kā sā-kor, female-being one cow, a cow.

Number is only indicated when it does not appear from the context. Several words, all apparently meaning 'many', 'much', 'all' etc., are added in order to denote the plural. The following occur: e. fa, jung, kup, ngel, and po. E only occurs in vok-e, the pigs, and is perhaps no plural sudix. Jā or zā means 'all' in Lushēi, Lai, and other languages. As a plural suffix it may be used alone, or together with other suffixes, e.g., ngei. It generally occurs in the form en-jā-en (compare Lushēi ā-zā-in, all), or as jā-kā. Jong correspond to Lushēi zong-zong, all, Lai zong, anything. Ngei occurs as a plural suffix in Kom, Hallam, Banjogi, etc., and means 'many', 'very'. Compare No. 122 in the list of words. In Pankhū it is often combined with po or pá, which corresponds to Siyin po, all. I cannot analyse the remaining plural suffix kup, which is used alone or together with ngei. The following instances will illustrate the use of these suffixes, an pā-jā lākān, from fathers, lit., their father-all from; nū-nāo jā-khā (i.e., jā-kā) lāhā, daughter all from, from daughters; kel jā-en, goats; ā-chā mi en-jā-en, good man all, good men; mi-pha nū in-jā-en, of daughters, lit., human-beings female all; nū-nāo an in-jā-en, daughters, lit. daughter they all; ā-chā mi ngei en-jā kūng-un, good man very all to, to good men; ā-chā mi ngei jong lākān, good man many all from, from good men; cho-pē mū-nāo kup, goats; nū-nāo ngei kūng-un, to daughters; ā sheya-lo ngē, his servants ; an pā ngē tā kup-in, of fathers, lit. perhaps their father many (of) word many-in; ā-chā mi ngei po, good men, etc.

Case.—The Nominative and the Accusative do not take any suffix. The suffix in, denoting the agent, is generally added to the subject of a transitive verb. The i in in is occasionally dropped after a preceding vowel. Thus, mi-riem khūk-kā-n nao-pā ni-kū ā-nāi, man one-by sons two he got. The suffix in is however often omitted, especially in the list of words. The Genitive is denoted by putting the governed before the governing

noun; thus,  $k\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$   $s\bar{u}a$ - $p\bar{u}i$   $n\bar{a}o$ , my father's brother's son, the son of my uncle. The list of words seems to contain a genitive suffix  $t\bar{u}$ ; thus,  $n\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{a}o$   $kh\bar{a}k$ - $k\bar{a}$   $t\bar{u}$ , of a daughter. In the specimen  $t\bar{u}$  occurs in the sense of 'word', 'command', and  $n\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{a}o$   $kh\bar{a}k$ - $k\bar{a}$   $t\bar{u}$  probably means 'the word of a daughter'.  $P\bar{a}$   $k\bar{a}$   $n\bar{a}o$   $t\bar{u}$ , of a father, perhaps means 'a father's son's word'. It is not probable that  $t\bar{u}$  is a real suffix of the genitive and it does not occur as such in any sentence. In  $k\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$ - $ch\bar{u}$  shea-lo  $k\bar{a}m\bar{a}$ -bul-ta, my father's hired servants, the governed word has been repeated before the governing one by means of the pronoun  $ch\bar{u}$ . Other relations are denoted by means of postpositions such as  $\bar{a}$ , in, to;  $ch\bar{u}ng$ -a, in;  $ch\bar{u}ng$ -mi, from; hin, from; in, in, among, with;  $k\bar{u}ng$ - $\bar{a}$ , to;  $k\bar{u}ng$ -hin, from;  $k\bar{u}ng$ -un, to;  $l\bar{a}k$ - $l\bar{a}(n)$ , from;  $m\bar{a}k$ -li-li, before; nin, with; nung-ka-li-li, behind; thoy-li, under; tung-li, to; un, in, on. The i in  $v\bar{a}n$ -i  $k\bar{a}$   $t\bar{u}ng$ -lo, heaven-to I sinned, seems to be a postposition, and perhaps corresponds to Lai hi, against.

Adjectives.—Adjectives usually follow, but occasionally also precede, the noun they qualify. In the former case postpositions and suffixes are added to the adjective and not to the qualified noun. Thus,  $r\bar{u}m$   $d\bar{u}ng-\bar{a}$ , country other to;  $\bar{a}$ - $ch\bar{a}$  mi en- $j\bar{a}$ -en, good men.

The suffix of comparison is  $n\bar{a}k$ - $\bar{a}n$  or  $n\bar{a}k$ - $\bar{a}$  chūn; thus,  $\bar{a}$ -chūa-pūi-pā  $\bar{a}$ -char-nū  $n\bar{a}k$ - $\bar{a}n$  an-chāng, his brother his sister than tall, his brother is taller than his sister; o- $m\bar{a}$  (i.e.,  $\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$ )  $n\bar{a}k$ - $\bar{a}n$   $\bar{a}$ -chā, that than good, better. The superlative is formed in the same way, but nal is added to the adjective. Thus,  $m\bar{a}$   $n\bar{a}k$ - $\bar{a}$  chūn an-chāng nal, best.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. The prefix pa (written pha) is a generic particle. It is not used when the numeral refers to money; thus,  $t\bar{a}nk\bar{a}$  ni  $n\bar{u}ng$ -un  $\bar{a}$ - $d\bar{a}$ -li, rupees two and a half. In speaking of human beings its use seems to be optional; thus,  $n\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{a}o$   $kh\bar{a}k$ - $k\bar{a}$ , a daughter;  $n\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{a}o$  pa-ni- $k\bar{a}$ , two daughters, and so the list always gives  $kh\bar{a}k$ - $k\bar{a}$ , one, but pa-ni- $k\bar{a}$ , two. The suffix  $k\bar{a}$  is probably the same as in  $j\bar{a}$ - $k\bar{a}$ , many, all. Compare the suffix  $k\bar{a}$  after the numerals in Hallām, etc. The numerals generally follow, but occasionally also precede, the noun they qualify.

Pronouns.—The following are the Personal pronouns:—

Singular,—

kei-mā, kei, I. nang-ma, nang, thou.  $\bar{a}$ -mā,  $\bar{a}$ -ni, an, ni-ha, he. kei, kā, my. nā, ni, ne, thy.  $\bar{a}$ -ni,  $\bar{a}$ , his.

kei-mā-tā, mine. nang-mā-(ā-)tā, thine. ni-tā, his.

Plural,—

kei-ni, we. nang-ni, you. an-ni, they. kei-mā-ni, our. nang-ni, your. an-ni, an, their.

To these must be added the forms kan, our, and nin, your. which occur among the pronominal prefixes; see Verbs, below. The forms  $kei-m\bar{a}-t\bar{a}$ , mine,  $nang-m\bar{a}-t\bar{a}$ , thine, and  $ni-t\bar{a}$ , his, are taken from Captain Lewin's list, where we also find  $kei-m\bar{a}$ , we, and  $nang-m\bar{a}$ , you. The list of words further has  $kei-m\bar{a}$ , mine;  $nang-ni-t\bar{e}$ , thine; and anni hoa, his. Ho is apparently a demonstrative pronoun; thus,  $\bar{a}-ni$   $n\bar{a}o$  ho, his son that,  $\bar{a}-ni$  ho thin thoy- $\bar{a}$   $\bar{a}n-th\bar{a}-r\bar{a}o$ , he that tree under sitting-is. The ordinary case suffixes may be added to the personal pronouns. Thus, nang  $t\bar{u}$ , of thee (compare  $n\bar{a}$   $t\bar{u}$ , thy word, in the specimen); kan  $in-j\bar{a}-in$ , we; an jah (that is  $j\bar{a}$ ) hon, they. 'Of me' is given as kei tlong  $ch\bar{u}$ ; compare  $K\bar{o}m$   $ka-t\bar{o}ng$ , of me.

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Demonstrative pronouns.—Hi, this; wi ki, this, let  $n^2$ , this; ho, that;  $kk\bar{a}$ , that;  $m\bar{a}$ ,  $m\bar{a}$ - $h\bar{a}$ , that;  $ch\bar{u}$ , that. The pronoun chi is added to other words in order to emphasise; thus, kei- $ch\bar{u}$ , I; neng-ai- $ch\bar{u}$ , you; k i  $p\bar{a}$   $ch\bar{u}$ , my father;  $\bar{a}$ - $ts\bar{u}$  m  $ch\bar{u}$ , his property.

Relative pronouns.—Their place is supplied by the use of relative participles and the noun of agency. Thus,  $\tilde{a}$  kol-nā  $r\bar{u}m$ , he going country, the country into which he went;  $n\bar{a}$   $n\bar{a}o$   $ch\bar{u}$ -ho  $r\bar{u}m$   $d\bar{a}ng$ - $\bar{a}$   $\bar{a}$ -kal-mi, thy brother that country another-to wentwho;  $n\bar{a}$   $n\bar{a}o$   $s\bar{u}m$   $m\bar{a}$ -vai- $t\bar{u}$ , thy son fortune wasted-who.

Interrogative pronouns.—Ā-tū, who ? mi-hi i, this what ? i-to, what ? kā-jā-kā, how much ? ko-jā-kā-en, how many ? ko-ten-kā, how far ? e-rang-ā, why ? The interrogative particle mēn may be added. Thus, tā kāng mēn mā (i.o., nē) chēng, whom from did you buy it ? e-mēn an ti, what are they doing? Compare i-ta nia ti, what do you do? Mēn and mān are apparently also used in the sense of 'even'; thus kēl-tē mān, a kid even; nang kūng khā-mān, thee to that even, and also towards thee.

Indefinite pronouns.—The only instance seems to be e-ma na  $t\bar{u}$   $k\bar{u}$ -a(t)-lo, any thy word I disobeyed not. E-ma is perhaps for e-man; compare Lai  $z\bar{e}$ -mau-lo, nothing.

Verbs.—Verbs are conjugated in person and number by means of pronominal prefixes. The following occur:— $k\bar{a}$  or ke, I; kan, we:  $n\bar{a}$ , thou; nin, you:  $\bar{a}$ , he; an, they. These prefixes are often dropped, but this fact may be due to inadvertence. The list of words abounds in blunders. Thus,  $k\bar{a}$  and  $\bar{a}$  are occasionally used as plural prefixes. In the second person the imperative is given instead of all other forms, and before the imperative the prefixes are regularly dropped. In No. 240 the prefix of the second person singular is given as  $m\bar{e}$ , probably a miswriting for  $n\bar{e}$ , etc.

The root alone is freely used to denote present and past tenses. Thus,  $kei-m\bar{a}$   $k\bar{a}$   $ch\bar{a}ng$ , I am;  $\bar{a}$   $p\bar{e}k$ , he gave;  $k\bar{a}$  kal, I have gone;  $kei-m\bar{a}(n)$   $k\bar{a}$  jel, I had struck.

The suffix of the Present definite is given as roa or  $r\bar{a}o$ , compare Lai leo. Thus,  $kei-m\bar{a}(n)$   $k\bar{a}$  jel-roa, I am striking;  $an-th\bar{a}-r\bar{a}o$ , he is sitting. The corresponding Imperfect seems to be formed with the suffix en; thus,  $kei-m\bar{a}(n)$   $k\bar{a}$  jel-en, I was beating. This form is probably also a present definite, compare the corresponding suffix  $\bar{e}n$  in Rāngkhōl. Another suffix of the imperfect is perhaps ti; thus, mi riem-ti,  $\bar{e}i-ti$ , bar-ti, the men feasted, ate, feeded. Compare Participles below.

The suffixes of the Past tenses are  $t\bar{a}$  and roa; thus,  $k\bar{a}$   $ch\bar{u}an-t\bar{a}$ , I did;  $\bar{a}$   $ti-t\bar{a}$ , he said;  $kei-ch\bar{u}$   $k\bar{a}$  kal-roa, I went. The form in roa seems to be identical with the form for the present definite mentioned above.

The suffix of the Future is ti and the pronominal prefixes are inserted between the root and the suffix. Thus,  $kei-m\bar{a}$   $ch\bar{a}ng-k\bar{a}-ti$ , I shall be, lit. I 'be' I say;  $zel-k\bar{a}-ti$ , I shall strike;  $kal-k\bar{a}-ti$ , I will go. Compare the future in Hallām and other Old Kuki dialects. Another, future suffix seems to be  $\bar{a}t$ ; thus,  $k\bar{a}-ti-\bar{a}t$ , I shall die, I am dying;  $kei-m\bar{a}$   $\bar{a}-jel-\bar{a}t$ , me he strike will, I shall be struck.

Imperative.—According to the list of words the root alone, without any suffix, may be used as an imperative; thus, kal, go;  $ch\bar{a}ng$ , be. The usual suffixes are  $r\bar{o}$  or  $r\bar{a}$  and rang; thus,  $p\bar{e}$ - $r\bar{o}$ , give; tleng-rang, bring. The form ending in rang seems to be connected with the future suffix  $r\bar{a}ng$  in Rāngkhol, Hallām, etc. The suffix of the negative imperative is  $m\bar{a}k$ -ro; thus,  $n\bar{a}o$ -w-in  $r\bar{u}at$ - $m\bar{a}k$ -ro, sons-among don't consider, lit. perhaps,

cease to consider me among your sons. Compare the Old Kuki negative  $m\bar{a}k$ , and Introduction, p. 19.

The root alone is also used as an Infinitive or Verbal noun; thus,  $n\bar{a}o$ -w-in  $r\bar{u}at$   $m\bar{a}k$ -ro, sons among to consider cease;  $\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}o$ -klēng  $ch\bar{u}ng$ - $\bar{a}$ , his brother's arriving at. The suffix of the Infinitive of purpose seems to be ding; thus,  $\bar{e}i$ -ding  $\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}i$ -lo, eating for he got not, he got nothing to eat. This form is also used as a verbal noun. Other infinitive suffixes occur in the list of words; thus,  $ch\bar{a}ng$ - $ch\bar{e}$ -la, to be; jel- $t\bar{a}$ , to strike. The former of these two is perhaps a conjunctive participle. The infinitive ending in  $t\bar{a}$  perhaps occurs in  $kh\bar{a}$ -ti- $t\bar{a}$  hong- $tl\bar{u}ng$ - $t\bar{a}$   $\bar{a}$ - $ts\bar{a}$ -lom- $\bar{e}$ , therefore to make merry is good. Every word in this sentence is, however, uncertain.

Participles.—The list of words gives jel-ro, striking, and  $ch\bar{a}ng$ -ti, being. Both these forms seem to belong to the present definite or imperfect. See above. The mere root may be considered as a Relative participle in clauses such as  $\bar{e}i$ -ding  $\bar{a}$ -n $\bar{a}i$ -lo-h $\bar{u}n$ -in, to-eat he not-having time at, when he had nothing to eat. Compare Verbal noun above. The most usual suffix of this participle is  $n\bar{a}$ ; thus,  $\bar{a}$  kal-n $\bar{a}$  r $\bar{u}m$ -ch $\bar{u}$ , he going country that, that country into which he went. As in Banjōgī, a suffix mi seems also to be used to form relative participles; thus,  $k\bar{a}$  n $\bar{a}o$   $\bar{a}n$ -tlao-mi  $k\bar{a}$ -tong, my son who was lost has been found. Conjunctive participles seem to be formed by means of the suffixes  $\bar{a}$ ,  $\bar{e}n$ , and  $l\bar{a}$ . Thus,  $k\bar{a}l$ -ro- $\bar{a}$ , having gone;  $ch\bar{a}ng$ -en- $\bar{a}$ , having been;  $\bar{a}$   $j\bar{u}ar$ -pi- $\bar{e}n$ , he wasted-all-having; jel-chea-in- $l\bar{a}$  poa-rang, well-struck-having bind him.

A Noun of agency is formed by adding the suffix  $t\bar{u}$ ; thus,  $l\hat{a}$ -lo- $t\bar{u}$ , a cultivator;  $k\bar{e}l$ - $k\bar{a}l$ - $t\bar{u}$ , a goat tender, a shepherd;  $m\bar{a}$ - $v\bar{a}i$ - $t\bar{u}$ , one who wastes.

There is no Passive voice. 'I am struck' must be translated 'he struck me.' Thus,  $kei-m\bar{a}$   $\bar{a}-jel$ , I am struck; ton  $\bar{a}$  jel, then he struck, I was struck;  $kei-m\bar{a}$   $\bar{a}$   $jel-\bar{a}t$ , I shall be struck;  $k\bar{a}$  tong, I found him, he has been found again.

Compound verbs are formed by means of prefixes and by adding other words in order to modify the meaning. The prefix hong denotes motion towards the speaker; thus, hong-choy-rang, here-bring. Ni seems to denote direction from the speaker; thus, ni-rot, to consider, in nao-in ni-rot māk-ro, son as to consider cease, do not consider me as your son. Instead of ni-rot we find rūat (compare Lushēi ruat) in the corresponding passage, and ni is perhaps the pronominal prefix of the second person singular. The prefix mā seems to have a transitive force; thus, mā-tim, to kiss; mā-riem, to give a feast (compare mi riem-ti, they feasting). Van in van-tlang-hong-rang, come let us be merry, is perhaps connected with the emphasising prefix vūn in Lai. Causatives are formed by adding pūi, probably identical with Lushēi pui, to help, to assist; thus ā kal-pūi, he brought; zū nā in-pūi, beer thou causest to be drunk. Other words added in order to form compounds are pi, all; zo, all; zāi, to finish. In the list of words we find kei chāng cheng kā-ti, I may be, and kei khām jel kā or, I may strike. I cannot analyse these forms. In ā-thi-mo ā-dom-mo, he was dead and is alive, the two mo are perhaps a kind of correlatives.

The Negative particle is lo; thus  $\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}i$ -lo, he had not. A negative prefix m seems to occur in mhi mhi, no, i.e., m'hi, it is not.

The regular Order of words seems to be subject, direct object, indirect object, verb. There is, however, no consistency, and I have been unable to trace any rules.

# TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

# KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

## PANKHU.

(CHITTAGONG HILL TRACTS.)

Mi-rryēm khāk-kān não pha-ni-kā ā-nāi. Ā-nāo-w-in. 'Kei Man 0716 80NS two he-had. The-younger (-said), 'My chān-āi-mi pē-rā.' Ā-chān-āi ā-pān ā-pēk. A-chān-āi tsüm shure-what-is give.' His-share his-futher he-gave. His-share property ā-kal-pūi rūm-dāng-ā. Ā-tsūm-chū ā-jūnr-pi-ēn chāk-ding hill-other-to. he-brought His-property-that he-spent-all-having eat-to ā-nāi-lo. Ā-kal-nā rūm-chū tlum chak-ding ā-nāi-lo. Ei-ding ā-nāihe-had-not. He-gone hill-that in (?) eat-to he-had-not. Eat-to he-hadlo-hün-in an lāl kūng-ā mū-jū chāk-ding hâl. Vok-e kāl-ding he chief not time-at to wages (?) eat-to went. Pigstend-to Vok-e kāl-mūn-nā phā-vāi mān ā-tong-lo. Ā-ngai-to-ā-tā, 'Kā-pā-chū ā-pēk. Pigs tend-getting husks even he-got-not. He-considered, 'My-father's shea-lo kāmā-bul-ta amo-kam-chū an-ĉi-zo-zāi-lo, kei-chū mi-hin chākhired labourers (?) they-eat-all-finish-not, Ι here hungerchām-in kā-ti-āt. Kā-pā kũng-ã kal-kā-ti, "Pā. vān-i with I-die-shall. My-father to go-I-will, " Father, heaven-against kā-tūng-lo," ti-kā-ti, "nāo-win rūat māk-ro, ne-chhia-lo-in om-kā-ti." I-sinned," say-I-will, "son-as to-consider cease, thy-servant-as be-I-will." küng an-kal-roā. Ā-pā-in rāl-kāti**n** ā-mū, 'Kā-nāo ā-tlang,' he went. His-father distance at he-saw, 'My-son he-comes, His-father to ā-ti-tā. an-driem ā-ring-un ā-pom ā-mā-tim. 'Pā, vān-i he-glad-was his-neck-on he-fell he-said, he-kissed. 'Father, heaven-against kā-tūng-lo, nang kūng khā-mān văn-i kā-tūng-lo, nāo-in ni-rot māk-ro.' I-sinned, thee before also heaven-against I-sinned, son-as to-consider cease. Ā-pān Pūān tsā ā-sheya-lo-ngē, tleng-rang, a-ting-a pe-rang, a-ti-ta. His-father his-servants, cloth goodbring him-to give,' he-said. Pē-kok an-pē, kūt-bik ā-tlēng-pek ā-bik. 'Van tlang-hong-rang,' Shoes he-gave, hand ring he-brought-gave he-put-on. 'Come-let-us-be-merry,' he-said, an-tlāo-mi, 'Kā-nāo kā-tong.' Mi riem-ti ēi-ti bar-ti. he-lost-who, I-found.' Men feasting eating feeding (were). 'Mu-son

Ā-nāo kleng-chung-a ā-ū lo-shiā kal. A-hong-His-younger son coming-in his-elder-son fields-in went. He-homeblung-ta, khoang nin dar mrit ā-thai-tā. E-men an-ti?' ā-ti-tā. came. drumand gong sound he-heard. ' What they-do?' he-said.

'Nā-nāo-phā ā-tlang, nin-ti?' · I-ta Shea-lo khāk-kā ā-kāo,  $`Thy \cdot younger \cdot brother"$ he came. you-do?' ' What he-called, one Servant Dum-kān āan-in. ā-mā-riem-tā, zū ā-tlūng nā-pā-in Safe hehe-happy-became he-gave-feast, beer they-drink. thy-father 'E-rang-ā Ā-pān, ā-ning-anjhēr. chū Ā-ū-pā tleng.' ' Why His-father, he-got-angry. thatHis-elder-son came.' 'len-kā Ā-ū-pān. nang ā-chūak. ā-ti-tā, in-chung-mi ā-ni-anjhēr?' 'Long-time thy The-elder, house-from he-came-out. he-said, he-angry? vēi-kē-mān kēl-tē kā-a(1)-lo, kā-chūan-tā. e- $m\bar{a}$ nā-tū chūan kidI-disobeyed-not, time-any thy-word any I-did, work Nā-nāo ni-ti-lo. nin sā-rang" ne-rūal " Ne-chhien mēn. thou-saidst-not. Thy-younger-son eat," even, "Thy-friends thy-companions with 'Kā-nāo nā-in-pūi.' zū mā-vāi-tū hong-tlang-ta, sūm ' My-80n thou-to-drink-causest.' beer home-came, wasted-who property rūmho Nā-nāo-chū nang-chū kom-khoa-in nā-om kā-kung-ā. that hill- ${\it Thy-younger-brother-that}$ me-with.  $thou \cdot art$ always thou hong-tlung-ta, Khā-ti-tā ā-dom-mo. ā-kal-mi ā-thi-mo dāng-ā here-merry-to-be Therefore he-alive is. he-died he-went-who other-to chū nang-mā-ātā.' chhūm In-chhūng ā-tsā-lom-ē. thine.' that House-in 1 roperty it-good-happy-is.

### STANDARD WORDS AND SENTENCES IN THE LANGUAGES

Eng	lish.			Lai (H	aka).			Shonshe of	Ganga	w (F.	H. Elio	tt). Lushëi (Dulien).	
1. One		•	•	Pö-kat .	•		•	Ma-kat	•		•	. Pa-khat	•
2. Two	•	•		Pö-nī, pö-nhit		•		Ma-nhi	•	•	•	. Pa-nhih	
3. Three	•	•	•	Pö-thūm		• '		Ma-tōn		•		. Pa-thum	
4. Four	•	•	•	Pö-li .		٠	•	Ma-li	•	•		. Pa-li	
5. Five	•		•	Pö-nga .				Ma-ngā				. Pa-ngā	
6. Six	•	•	•	Pö-rāk .		•		Ma-rūk	•			. Pa-ruk	
7. Seven	•	•	•	Pö-sê-rī .	•			Ma-seri	•			. Pa-sarih	
8. Eight		•	•	Pö-rye <u>th</u>			•	Ma-rit	•			. Pa-riat	•
9. Nine	٠	•	•	Pö-kwa .	•		•	Ma-ko	•		•	. Pa-kuā	
10. Ten	•	•	•	Pö-ra .	•		•	Ma-rā	•		•	. Shom	
11. Twenty	•	•	•	Pö-kül .	•		•	Ma-kul			•	. Shom-nbih	
12. Fifty	•	•	•	Sâm-nga	•			Sâm ngā		•		Shom-ngā	٠.
13. Hundred	•	•	•	Za-kat, chuē-k	at, or	shwē-l	zat	Ya kat	•			. Zā	
14. I .	•	•	٠	Kë-ma .			٠	Ke-mā		•	•	. Kei-mā, kā , .	
15. Of me	•	•	•	Kē-ma, kā, or	k•				•••••	,		Ditto	
16. Mine	•	•	•	Kē-ma-sa, or k	ē-ma	-i	$\cdot$		•••••			Kei-mā-tā, kā-tā .	
17. We	•	•	•	Kan-nī .	•			Ke-mā la	i	•	•	. Kei-mā-nī, kan .	
18. Of us	•			Kan-nī .	•	٠			•••••			· Ditto	
19. Our	•	•	•	Kan-ni .		•		•	•••••			Kei-mā-nī, kan	-
20. Thou	•		٠	Nang-ma	•			Nang-mā				Nang-mā, i	
21. Of thee	•	•	•	Nang-ma, or no		•			•••••			Ditto	
22. Thine	•	•	•	Nang-ma-sa, or	nong	ζ-ma-ī	$\cdot$		•••••			Nang-mā-tā, i-tā .	
23. You	<b>·</b> .	•	$\cdot  $	Nan-ni .	•		$\cdot  $	Nang-mā	•	•	•	Nang-mā-nī, in .	
24. Of you	•	•		Nan-nī .	•	•	$\cdot$		•••••			Ditto .	
K-C G	7.00							~				I a	

# OF THE CENTRAL CHIN SUB-GROUP.

Banjögī (Chittagong Tracts).	#in	Pānkhū (Chittagong Hill Tracts).	English.
Pa-khat .	•	Pha-kāt (or kat-kā) .	. 1. One.
Pi-ni (or pa-nhi)	•	Pha-nhi (or pa-nhi) .	. 2. Two.
Pa-tum		Pha-tām (or tām-kāt)	. 3. Three.
Pi-li (or pa-li)		Pha-li (or un-li) .	. 4. Four.
Pa-ngā	-	Ra-ngā	. 5. Five.
Pa-rāk		Ruk	. 6. Six.
Pa-si-ri		Sā-ri (or sarrik)	. 7. Seven.
Pa-reyet (or pa-rick)	-	Riet (or rick)	. 8. Eight.
Pa-koa	•	Kūwa (or kwa) .	9. Nine.
Pa-ra (or tsom) .		Tsom.	. 10. Ten.
Kül (or tsom-ni) .	- !	Tsom-nhī	. 11. Twenty
Tsom-ngā	. :	Tsom-ngā	. 12. Fifty.
Zā	- 2	Zāh (or ra-jā)	. 13. Hundred.
Kei-mā	. 1	Kei-mā	14. I.
Kei-mā	. E	Veitlong chủ	15. Of me.
Kei-mā (or kei-mā-tā.)	- E	Cei-mā (or kei-mā-tā) .	I6. Mine.
Kan-mā ,	.   K	Cei-ní chữ	17. We.
Kan-mā	. K	Ceitāchā	18. Of us.
Xan-mā	. K	Cei-mā-ni	19. Our.
Nang-mā	. N	ang (or nang-mā)	20. Thou.
iangi	. N	ang tā	21. Of thee.
langi (or nang-mā-tā)	. N	ang ni të (or nang-mā-tā)	22. Thine.
an-ma	. N	ang-nichti	23. You.
ang-ni-chu	. Na	ang-ni ngēi tā	24. Of you.
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Euglish					Lai (	Haka).		S	houshe of G	angaw	(F. H	I. Eliott)	:  .	Lushëi	(Duli	en).		
25. Your .			•	Nan-nī	•	•				•••••			1	Nang-mā-ni-	tā.	•		
26. Ho .				Amma	•				Ammā .		•	•	.   2	Ā-mā, ā .	•		,	
27. Of him				Amma,	an, o	r a.	•			••••	•			Ditto .	•			
28. His .	,			Amma-	3a, or	amma	-i			<b>.</b> 3	•			Ā-mā-tā.				
29. They				Anni	•	•			Ammā lai	i			. .	An-mā-ni, aı	1.			
30. Of them				Anni			•	-						Ditto			•	•
31. Their				Anni		•	•	-		••••	•			An-mā-ni-tā			•	•
32. Hand				Kūt	•	ē				••••				Kut .			•	·
33. Foot		•		Kē					A (sic)	•			$\cdot$	Kephah .		•		٠
34. Nose				Nar				•	A-nga	•				Nhār .				
35. Eye				Myit			•		Myit			••		Mit .			•	
36. Mouth				. Kā				•	Kā.					Kā .			-	
87. Tooth				. Ha					Hā					Hā .				
38. Ear				. Nā					Nhā					Beng .		•		
39. Hair		-		. Süm		:			Sām					Sham .				
40. Head		_		. Lā					Lā			•		La .		•		
41. Tongue	•	•		Le .					Laik	•				Lei · •		•		
42. Belly	•	•		TDA	•			•	På					Pum .				
43. Back	•	•		. Keng	•	•	•				•			Nhung-zān	g	•		
	•	•		. Tirh	•	•	•	•	Tir					Thir		•	•	
44. Iron	•	•			•	•	•	-	Shwi					Rangkāchs	.k	•		
45. Gold	•	•		. Shwi		•	•		På	•				Tangkā .				
46. Silver	٠	•		. Ngtu		•	•			•	•		•	Pā .			•	
47. Father	٠	•	•	. A-ps		• •	•	•	A-pā Ka-nū	•	•	•	•	N.s.				
49. Brother	• .	,	•	. A-nt	(ŭ, e	elder br	other	; na		· elder)		•		Ti rec		•	•	
50. Sister				. A f		010000	, ,.	-	. A-farr	•		•		Farnā .		•	•	

Banjogi	Tract	s).		1	Pankau	Chittage Tracts;	ong H:			Et glien.
	***	•		Table Prince No. of St. St. St.	Nang-ni c	hā .	•	,	25.	Your.
i-mā .		•	•	-	Ni ha (or	am-ma		• ,	26.	He.
Ā-ni thū (	(lit. l	is wo	rd)		Ānni ngāi	tā .			27.	Of him
Hi bi (?)		•			Ānni hos	(or vi te	<b>.</b> ) .	• •	28.	His.
Khi ki (?	)	•	•	-	Ānjah hor		•	• }	29.	They.
Hi-hi mo	<b>(</b> ?)	•	•		Ānjah tā	in .	•	•	30.	Of them.
Hi bi mo	<b>(</b> ?)	•	•	-	Ānni hon	•	•	• }	31.	Their.
Kā-bān (d	r küi	t)	•		Kūt (or k	ūt-par)		• ;	32.	Hand.
Ka-ka	•	•			Phei (or p	oi-phal	r) .	.:	83.	Foot.
Kā-nār		•			När		•	• .	34.	Nose.
Kē-mit		•	•	-	Mit		•	• !	35.	Eye.
Kā-kā (o	ma-	kar)		-	Mel (or m	akar)	-	- !	36.	Mouth.
Kā-hā	•		•		Hà		•	- !	37.	Touth.
Kā-na-ko	( <i>or</i> 1	a)	•	-	Nā		•	•	38.	Ear.
Kä-tsäm			•	•	Chām (or	tsüm)	•	•	39.	Hair.
La	•	•			Lā		•	- 1	<b>4</b> 0.	Head.
Lēi	•	•	•	-	Lei				41.	Tongue.
Po .			•	•	Dil		-	•	<b>4</b> 2.	Belly.
Kēin				•	Kā-nūng			-	43.	Back.
Thir	-	•	•		Thir		•	-	44.	Iron.
Ngūn		•	•	-	Ngān		•	-	45.	Gold.
Tān-kā	•	-	•	•	Tänkä		•	•	46.	Silver.
Ā-pā		-	•	•	Pā.		-	•	47.	Father.
Kä-nā	•	-	•	•	Na		•		48.	Mother.
Kü-nü () brother brother	;	ŭ pa,	<b>6</b> 4	1er	Chāppāi		•	•	49.	Brother.
Kā tsar-	n <b>t</b> i	•	•	_	Phar-mű		•		50	. Sister.

	Eng	lish.				La	i (Haks).			Shonshe of	Gang	aw (F.	H. Eliott)	. 1	išdar.	Dulieu	.).	
51.	Man			•	Мі ра	•	•	•	•	Mi	•	•		Mi-pā	•		•	
52.	Woman			•	Mi nū	•	•	•	•	S*-nū	:			Mhei-ch	hia			
33.	Wife	•	•	٠	Nā pī		•		•	N*-pi		•		Nū-pui				
54.	Child	•	•		Fa.	•	•		•	Huk-të				Nao-pan	g			
55.	Son .		•	٠	Fa ра	•	•	•		A-pwa	•			Fā-pā	•		•	
56.	Daughter		•		Fa nū	•	•		•	Fu-nā	•	•		Fā-nū	•		•	
57.	Slave	•	•		Shāļ		•	•	•	Sāl	•		• •	Boi	•		•	
58.	Cultivator		•	•	Lo-klo- <u>tl</u>	<u>h</u> ā	•	•	•	Lai-tōm	•			Lō-shian	ı-tū		•	
59.	Shepherd	•	•	•			••••				***	••		Beram-v	eng-t	ū1	•	
50.	God		•	•	Kō-zin	•	•	•	•	K'yaing	•			Pā-thian	9			
61.	Devil	•		•			•••••			T'seik	•			Huai <sup>2</sup>			•	
62.	Sun	. •	•		Nī	•	•	•	•	Ni	•			Ni	•	•	•	
63.	Moon				Kla pa	•	•	•	•	Tha-pā	•			Thia	•	•	•	
64.	Star	•	. •		Ar-fi	•	٠.	•	•	A-fi	•	•		Arshī	•	•		
65.	Fire	•	•	٠	Mě	•	•	•		A-nhaung	3	•		Mei	•	•	•	
66.	Water	•	•	•	<u>Th</u> i	•	•	•.	•	Ti .	•			Tui	•	•	•	•
67.	House	•	•	, <b>•</b>	Inn ·	•	•		-	Inn	•		• •	In	•	•	•	
68.	Horse	•	•	•	Rang	•	•	•	•	Rang	•	•		Sākor	•	•	•	
69.	Cow	•	•	•	Zâ-pi	•	•	•	٠	Lā ·	•	•		Sebâng	•	•	•	
70.	$\mathbf{Dog}$	•	•	•	Ū1-85	•	•	•	•	Oui	•	•		Ui	•	•	•	
	Cat .	•	•	•	Sī-zā	٠	•	•	•	Miauk	•	•		Zîte	•	•	•	
	Cock	•	•	•	Ar-lhi	•	• .	•	•	Arr-lhi-p	Ds.	•		Ar-pā	•	•	•	
	Duck	•	•	•	Som-pē	•	•	•	•		••••	••		Varak	•	<b>•</b> .	•	
	Ass .	•	•	•	La .	•	•	. •	٠		••••	••		Sā-bengt	ung	•	•.	
١.	Camel	•		•			4.				****	••		Sā-nghâ	ıg-soi	3	•	
	Bird	•	•	•	A vär	•	•	•	٠	Pa-wa	•	•	•	Sā-vā	•	•	•	
77.	Go .	•	•	•	Kallo		•	•		K-shō				Kal		•		

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> There are no indigenous sheep in the Lushai Hills. Beram is a corruption from Bengali; easy-th, a watcher.

<sup>2</sup> Fü-thian is generally considered to be the creator and general manager of the universe, but the Lusheis believe in many spirits, khun-sano, who have control in minor matters such as sickness, the fruitfulness of the soil, etc. Hasi are ovil spirits. There are Rum-hasis, fungle davils; Thire are no camels in Lushai land. Sā, animal, nghdag, neck, sei, long.

Banj	ögī (Ch Tra	ittagon cts).	g Hill		Pänkhü (Chittagong Hill English.
Mi-nūn	g •	•	•		Phāpṛā (or mi-rhiem) . 51. Man.
Kā-phā	-อฉิ	•	•		Phā-nū
Kā-nū-j	pi		•		Kā-nū-pūi 53. Wife.
Patsā (	probab	ly bor	rowed	) .	Não . F 54. Child.
Kā-fā-p	ā		•	•	Mi-pā nāo 55. Son.
Kā-fā-n	ũ	•	•	•	Nū-nā nāo 56. Daughter.
Toh-oh		•			In-ām 57. Slave.
Paisena	non (?	)			Lâ-lo-tu 58. Cultivator.
Kēl-bul-	-tā			•	Kel-kāl-tu 59. Shepherd.
Pozing (	(proba	bly K	ozing)		Ko-zin 60. God.
Kātairol	1	•	•	-	Chom 61. Devil.
Ni.		•	•		Ni , . 62. Sun.
Tlā-pā		•	•		Läh (or tlä) 63. Moon.
Ar-fi	•	•	•		Ār-chi (or ar-si) 64. Star.
Mai	•	•	•		Mēi (or māi) 65. Fire.
Ti (or tā	i)	•	•		Tūi 66. Water.
In .		•			In 67. House.
Rang		• _	•	-	Sā-kor 68. Horse.
Sopē					Châ-pē 69. Cow.
Ŭi.	•			-	Ŭi 70. Dog.
Chiza (o	r lå-ch	i)	•	-	Zo-tē (or lå-chī) 71. Cat.
Arkong	•.		•	-	Ār-kong 72. Cock.
Väräk		•	•	-	Vārāk 73. Duck.
Rang	•	•	•	-	74. Ass.
	••••	•			75. Camel.
V.	•	-	•		Vā (or sa-va) 76. Bird.
Kal	•	•	-	.	Kal(-rok) 77. Go.
				1	

English.		Lai (H	aka).			Shoushe of Gangaw	F. H. Eliott).	Lushëi (Dulien).	
78. Eat	. E .	•	•			•••••		Ei	
79. Sit	. Thū k	o .	•			Ka-tu .		Tha	
89. Come	. Hūn t	<u>h</u> wa	•			Lai-wa .		Lō-kal	
81. Beat	. Vēļ-lo	•		•	•	Ka-vel .		Vua, věl	•
82. Stand	Dir-ko		•	•	,	Ka-to .		Ding	
83. Dia	. Thi-lo			•		Ka-si		Thi	
84. Give	Vün-1	pē .	•		•	•••••	•	Pē	•
85. Run	. Klik-	lo .	•			K*-fun .		Tlån	
86. Up	СЪб	•	•				•	Chung-lam, or chhou	•
87. Near	, Nai	•		•		A-ngai .		Kiang	
88. Down	, Klang	g-lē-yā	•	•			•	Chhuk, or thlang-lam	•
89. Far	. A-lhā	t.				A-lhat .	• •	Lhā	
90. Before	, Mhai-	·lē .		•		K*-mhai		Mba	
91. Behind	. Nhū-	lō-yā			•	K*-nhu	• • •	Nhung	. •
92. Who	. A-ho	•	•	•			•	Tu-nge	
93. What	. Zē-da		•	•		••••	•	E-nge	
94. Why	, Zē-za	-da			•		•	E-nga-tan-nge .	
95. And	. Lē .	•	•					Leh	
96. But	. Chun	må .	•		•	••••	•	Ni-mah-she-la .	
97. If	. A-ch	ūn .		•			••	Chuan	
98. Yes	A-shi		•	•	•		••	Ā-nī, or å	
99. No	. A-sh	i-lo .	•	•		•••••	••	Ni-lo	•. •
100. Alas		•				*** et	•	***	
101. A father	. Pa p	ö-kat	٠	•			<b></b>	Pā pa-khat .	
102. Of a father .	. Par	ö kat	•			.	••	Ditto .	
103. To a father .	. Pa p	ö-kat hē	. •	•			•••	Pā pa-khat nhenā	
10i. From a father .	. Pa p	ö-kat-in		•			•••	Pä pa-khat nhenā-tā	

Banjôgī (Chittagong Hill Tracts).	Pānkhū (Chittagong Hill Tracts).	English.
Ai	Chā-ro(k)	78. Eat.
Ton	Thū-râ (or en-tō-rōk) .	79. Sit.
Hong-ro	Hong-rå (or hön-rök) .	80. Come.
Va-rå (or vok-ro)	Zel-rå	81. Beat.
Dir	Ding-râ	82. Stand.
Thi-rå	Thi-rå	83. Die.
Pē	Pē-rå (or pē-rōk)	84. Give.
Tek-rå (or tek-chem-rok) .	Klān-rå (or pū-rōk)	85. Run.
Ashung	Chung-lām-ā	86. Up.
Ā-nāi	Ānnāi	87. Near.
Ā-niem	Ānnāi-ā	88. Down.
Ā-lā	Ān-lah (or in-lhā)	89. Far.
Tūana	Māk-ti kāng-ā	90. Before.
Nūs	Nung-ti kāng-ā	91. Behind.
Äosa (or O-lha-si)	Ā-tu (or tū-tō-ā)	92. Who.
Zei	Mi-hi-i	98. What.
Jei-tomē (or zē-rūn-tla) .	I-rang-ā	94. Why.
Alāichērāh (or adang) .	Munung hin (or adang) .	95. And.
Chūvānā	Nābaikā	96. But.
Chū-chūn	I-lo	97. If.
Ā-shi (or \$)	â   s	98. Yes.
Ā-shi-lo	Mhi mhi (or ā-chan-lō) . 9	9. No.
σ	σ	00. Alas.
Kā-pā pa-khat	Pā kā	01. A father.
Pa khat pā	Pā kā nāo tū (?)	02. Of a father.
Fa-khat pā	An pā kūng-ā 10	03. To a father.
Kā-pā pa-khat chinā.	Anni pā kūng-hin 10	04. From a father.

English.	Lai (Haka).	Shonshe of Gangaw (F. H. Eliott).	Lushëi (Dulien).
105. Two fathers	Pa pö-ni		Pā pa-nhih
106. Fathers	Parwēļ		Pā-tē
107. Of fathers	Pa-rwēļ		Ditto
108. To fathers	Parwēļ hē	······	Pā-tē nhenā
109. From fathers	Parwēļ-in		Pā-tē nhenā-tā
110. A daughter	Fa-nā pö-kat	••••	Fā-nū pa-khat
lll. Of a daughter	Fa-n <del>ū</del> pö-kat		Ditto
112. To a daughter	Fa-nū pö-kat hē	. <b></b>	Fā-nū pa-khat nhenā .
113. From a daughter .	Fa-nū pö-kat-in		Fā-nū pa-kbat nhenā-tā .
114. Two daughters	Fa-nū ŗö-nī		Fā-nū pa-nhih . ,
115. Daughters	Fa-nā rwēļ	<b></b>	Få-nû-tê
116. Of daughters	Fa-nū rwēļ		Ditto
117. To daughters	Fa-nū rwēļ hē	••••	Fā-nū-tē nhenā
118. From daughters .	Fa-nû rwêļ-in		Fā-nū-tē nbenā-tā
119. A good man	Mi pa ta		Mi thá pa-khat
120. Of a good man	Mi pa ta		Ditto
121. To a good man	Mī pa ta hē		Mi tha pa-khat nhena .
122. From a good man .	Mī pa ta-in	······································	Mi thā pa-khat nhenā-tā .
123. Two good men	Mī pa ta pō-nī		Mī ṭhā pa-nhih
124. Good men	Mî pa ta rwêl		Mī thā tā
125. Of good men	Mi pa ta rwel		Ditto
126. To good men	Mî pa ta rwel he		MI tha to nhena
127: From good men	Mi pa ta rwël in		Mī thā tē nhenā-tā
128. A good woman	Mi-nū ta	Sanu hi a-ta-ko	Mheichhe' tha pa-khat
129. A bad boy	Pa thë a-ta-lo	Mi shē (a bad man)	Nac-pang tha-lo pa-khat .
130. Good women	Mi nu ta rwel	*****	Mheichhe' trá të
KC. G.—168			

Banjögi (Chittagong Hii Tracts,	Pankhi Chirarong Hil Trace,	Eng. 34.
Kā-pā pi-ni	. Pā pha-ni-ki	. 105. Two fathers
Kā-pā tām ngāi	. An pā-ng/-pā-in	- 150 Fathers,
Kā-pā tām ngāi	. An pā-ngē tā kup in	. 1.7. Of fathers.
Kā-pā tām ngāi	. An pā-ngē-p., kāng-un	. 108. To fathers.
Kā-pā ānem ngāi	. An pë jë lëkën	- 100. From fathers.
Fä-nű pa-khat	. No-não khák-kā	- 110. A daughter.
Få-nū pa-khat.	. Nū-não khák-kā tā .	. III. Of a daughter.
Fā-nā pa-khat chinā.	Nű-não khāk-kā küng-un	
T	137-	. 113. From a dang ter.
Fā-nū pi-ni	Nū-nāo pha-ni-kā	. 114. Two daughters.
Fā-nū tām ngāi .	Nū-não an in-jā-en	. 115. Daughters.
Fā-nū tām ngāi an-ni-cho .	Mi-pha nữ in-jā-en	116. Of daughters.
Fā-nā tām ngāi chinā .	Nű-não ngei küng-un	117. To daughters.
Fā-nū tām ngāi chinā	Nū-nāo jā-khā lākā	118. From daughters.
Mi sā-tāk	Khāk-kā mi chā	119. A good man.
Misā-tāk	Khāk-kā mi chā tū .	120. Of a good man.
Mi sā-tāk chinā	Khāk-kā mi chā kūng-un .	121. To a good man.
Mi sā pa-khat ni .	Mi chā-ngci khāk-kā kūng- un.	122. From a good man.
di sā pi-ni	Ā-chā mi pha-ni-kha	123. Two good men.
disā tām		124. Good men.
li sā ā-tām-mi chīnā .	A-chā mi ngei po tū-in . I	25. Of good men.
Ditto .	i-chā mi ngci en-jā kūng- un.	26. To good men.
Ditto . Ā	-chā mi ngei jong lākān . l	27. From good men.
ā-nā pa-khatā-sā K	hāk-kā nữ ā-chā 12	28. A good woman,
ik-shwey <b>z-sz-</b> lo pa-khat . K	hāk-kā chū ā-chā-khec-lo	9. A bad boy.
i-Dā.ā-8ā.	18	30. Good women.
		KC. G.—189

English.	Lai (Haka).	Shoushe of Gangaw (F. H. Eliott).	Lushëi (Dulien).		
31. A bad girl	Nū thē a-ta-lo		Mheichhe' nao-pang thā-lo pa-khat.		
32. Good	A-ta · · ·	A-ta-ko	Ţhā		
33. Better	A-ta dēyū · ·	A-ta-ön	Ţhā zāk		
34. Best • • •	A-ta-byik • •	. A-ta-byik	Ţhā ber		
35. High	A-shan	. A-sang	Shang		
36. Higher	A-shan dēy û		Shang tak		
37. Highest	A-shan-byik		Shang ēm ēm		
.38. A horse	Rang thum		Sā-kor pa-khat		
139. A mare	Rang pi		Sü-kor-nü pa-khat .		
140. Horses	. Rang thum rwel		Sā-kor-tē		
141. Marcs	. Rang pī rwēļ		Sā-kor-nū-tē		
142. A bull	. Zâ <u>th</u> ūm	. Tha-tom .	. Se-bâng-pā pa-khat .		
143. A cow	. Zâ pī	. Lâ	. Se-bâng-nữ pa-khat .		
144. Bulls	. Zā thūm rwēl .		Se-bâng-pā-tē		
145. Cows	. Zâ pī rwěļ		Se-bâng-nū-tē		
146. A dog	. Vi-so <u>th</u> ám		Ui pa-khat		
147. A bitch	. Ūi-so pī .		Ui-nū pa-khat.		
148. Dogs	. Üi-sõ <u>th</u> ām rwêļ .		Vi-tē		
149, Bitches	. Vi-so pi rwēļ .		Ui-nū-tē		
150. A he-goat	Mē-hē <u>th</u> ūm		Kel-pā pa-khat		
151. A female goat .	Mē-hē pi		Kel-nű pa-khat •		
152. Goats	Mē-hē rwēļ		Kel-tē		
153. A male deer .	. Sūk-kī sal		Sā-zuk-pā pa-khat		
154. A female deer	. Stik-ki pi		Sā-zuk-nū pa-khat .		
155. Deer	Sük-kürwé!		Sā-zuk		
156. I am	. Kē-ma ka-shī		Kei-mā ka-nī		
150. I am	Nang-ma na-shi		Nang-mā i-nī		

Binjegt Chirtage og feld Tracto,	Panala Cultimor of Hall Trusts :	र्व का दर <b>अ</b> दि
-	·• ————————————————————————————————————	
A-sa-le-mina-na	Na-mio a-cha- 5	) INI. A FLE gl.'
Āā	A-24	102 G. (4).
Å-sā ngāi	Ā-mā nākās ā-cha	123. B me
Ā-sā ngāi	Mú nakā elvīn lehā-nal .	184 Bust.
A-shyān	Anching	135. High
Ā-shyām ngāi	Mā nāka chūn anchūng .	233. Highe.
Ā-shyān khān	Mā nāka shun aneliasir-mi	137. Highs t.
Rang pa-khat	Sā-kor lhāk-kā	135. A Lerse.
Rang nu-na pa-khat	Nünäo khāk-kū sā-k r .	1-3e. A mr. e.
Rang ā-tām ngāi	Sā-kor en-jā-en	146. Horses.
Rang nū-nā ā-tām ngāi .	Nű-não sã-ker en-jä-en .	141. Mare:
So-pē chāl pa-khat	Cho-pē chāl	142. A ball.
Se-pē nū-nā pa-khat.	Cho-pē ā-pūi	143. A c.w.
So-pē chāl tām	En-ja-in ä-chäl	144. Bulis.
So-pē nū-mā tām	Сћо-ре пи-пас кар	145. C. ws.
Üi pa-khat	Ui pā khāk-kā	146. A deg.
Ŭi nū-nā pa-khat .	Úi nữ khák-ká	[ 147. A bitch.
Ui tām ngāi	Ŭi tlang ngci po	148. Dogs.
Ŭi nū-nā tām ngāi	Činū ngcipo	142. Buches.
Kēl chāl pa-khat	Kel chāl	150. A he-great.
Kël në-në pa-khat	Kel nŭ	151. A female goat.
Kei tām	Kel jā-en	152. Geats.
Sikki chāl pa-khat	Sā-ki chāl	153. A male deer.
Sikki nū-nā pa-khat	Sā-ki pūi	154. A fumale deer.
Sikki tām	Sz-kingeipo	155. Deer.
Kci-ma [kā-shī]	Kei-mā kā chāug	156. I am.
Nang [na-shi]	Nang chang-ro	157. Thou art.

English.		Lai (Haka).	Shonshe of Gangaw (F. H. Eliott).	Lushëi (Dulien).
158. He is		Amma a-shi	•••••	Ā-mā a-nī
159. We are		Kan-ni kan-shi		Kei-mā-nī kan-nī
160. You are .		Nan-ni nan-shi		Nang-mā-nī in-nī
161. They are .		An-nî an-shi		An-mā-nī an-nī.
162. I was .		Ka-tim-sang		Ka-ni
163. Thou wast.	i .	Na-um-sang		I-ni
164. He was .		A-ūm-sang		A-ni
165. We were .		Kan-ûm-sang		Kan-ni
166. You were .	•	Nan-um-sang		In-ni
167. They were		An-ūm-sang		An-ni
168. Be		· Shi-ko-shë		Om, or ni <sup>1</sup>
169. To be .		· Shī		Om, ni
170, Being .	•	Shi-ling-mang		Om-in
171. Having been	•	· Shī-nāk		Nī-tā, om-ā
172. I may be .	•	Ka-shi-dik		Ka-om-thei-e, ka-ni-thei-e
173. I shall be .		Ka-shī-lai		Ka-om-ang-e, ka-nī-ang-e .
174. I should be	•	·		Ka-om-thei-e, ka-ni-thei-e
175. Best .		· Vēļ-lo		Vua, vēl
176. To beat .	•	• Vēļ		Vēl-tūr
177. Beating .	•	· Vēļ-ling-mang .		Vēl-mēk
178. Having beaten		· Vēļ-nāk	•	Vēl-tā, vēl-ā
179. I beat .	•	. Ka-vēļ (or kē-ma-nē ka-vē		Ka-vēl
180. Thou beatest	•	· Na-Agi • • •		I-vēl
181. He beats .	•	. A-věl		A-věl
182. We beat .	•	. Kan-vēļ		Kan-vēl
183. You beat .	•	Nan-vēļ		In-věl
184. They beat	•	An-vēļ	•	An-vēl

<sup>1</sup> Om is 'to exist,' thus, khū-tā sā-kor a-om, down there the horse he is; but khū khū sā-kor a-nī, that thing a horse it is. K.-C. (i.—172

Banjūgi (Chittagong Hill Tracts).	Pānkhū (Chittageng Hill Tracts).	English
Anni [ā-ni ā-shi]	Mi-hi chārg	*
Kan-ni [kan shi]	Kei-mā kā chāng	159. We are.
Nang-ni [nan shi]	Nang chang-ro	160. You are.
Anni mroi [?]	Ān-ni ā chāng	161. They are.
Kei chā-tini si	Kei-mā kā om	162. I was.
Nang chū-tini si	*** ***	163. Thou wast.
Anni chū-tini si	Anniā om	164. He was.
Kan-ni chū-tini si	Kan in-jā-in kan om .	165. We were.
Nan-ni chū-tini si		166. You were.
An-ni chū-tini si	Ān-ni kan (i.e., an) om .	167. They were.
Ā-shi-lai	Chāng	168. Be.
Ā-shi-lai	Chāng chỉ la	169. To be.
Chū-tini-si	Chāng ti	170. Being.
Ā-shi-lai	Châng-en-ā	171. Having been.
Kei ä-shi-lai	Kei chāng-cheng kā-ti .	172. I may be.
Kei-mā kā si-lai	Kei-mā chāng kā-ti	173. I shall be.
	Kei-mā chāng kā-ti	174. I should be.
Vūa	Jel-ro	175. Beat.
Kā vūak-lai	Jel-tā	176. To beat.
Ā-vūak zia	Jel-ro	177. Beating.
Ā-vūak si-lai	Jel-tū (Noun of agency) .	178. Having beaten.
Kei-mā-ni kā-vūak .	Kei-mā ke-jel	179. I beat.
Nang an (i.e. nā) vūak	Nang-mā jel-rō (lit. beat) .	180. Thou beatest.
An-ni a-vüak	Ā-mān ā jel	181. He beats.
Kan-mā-ni kan-vūak	Kei-mā kā jel	182. We beat.
Nan-mā an (i.e. nan) vūak	Nang-mā jel-ro (lit. beat) .	183. You beat.
An-ni an-vūak	Än-nin ä jel	184. They beat.

English.	Lai (H	aka).			Shonshe of Gangaw (F. H. Eliott).	Lushēi (Du	ılien).		
185. I beat (Past Tense) .	Ka-vēļ-sang	•				Ka-vēl .	•	•	
186. Thou beatest (Past Tense).	Na-vēļ-sang	•	•		<b></b>	I-vēl .	•	•	-
187. He beat (Past Tense) .	A-vēļ-sang		•		•••	Δ-vēl .	•	•	
188. We beat (Fast Tense).	Kan-vēļ-sang	•	•	$\cdot$	•••	Kan-vēl .	•		
189. You beat (Past Tense)	Nan-vēļ-sang				*****	In-vēl .	•		
190. They beat (Past Tense)	An-vēļ-sang	•	•		•••••	An-vēl .	•		
191. I am beating	K-vēļ-leo	•	•	-	•••••	Ka-vēl-mēk	•		-
192. I was beating	Kª-věļ-leo-ē		•	-	******	Ka-vēl-tā	•	•	•
193. I had beaten	K*-vēļ-dī-ai	•			•••••	Ka-vēl-tā	•	•	•
194. I may beat	K-vēļ-dik	•			*** ***	Ka-vēl-thei-e	•		-
195. I shall beat	Ka-vēļ-lai				•••••	Ka-vēl-ang	•	•	
196. Thou wilt beat	N°-võļ-lai			-	<b></b>	I-vēl-ang	•		
197. He will beat	A-vēļ-lai	•		•	Ammā wa-shē-tsa (he will come).	A-vēl-ang	•	•	•
198. We shall beat	Kan-vēļ-lai	•		•	•••••	Kan-vēl-ang	•	•	•
199. You will beat	Nan-vēļ-lai	•				In-vēl-ang	•		٠
200. They will beat .	An-vēļ-lai			•	••••••	An-vēl-ang		•	
201. I should beat .		••••				Ka-vēl-tūr	•	•	
202. I am beaten .	Amma-në a-k	-vēl				Vel ka-ni	•		
203. I was beaten .	. Amma-nē a-k	-vēļ-s	ang		•••••	Vel ka-nī-tā		•	•
204. I shall be beaten	. Amma-nē a-k	a-vēļ-l	ai			Vel ka-ni-thei-	-ang	•	•
205. I go	. Ka-kal .					Ka-kai .		•	
206. Thou goest .	. Nakal .	•	•			· I-kal .			
207. He goes	. A-kal .					A-kal -			
208. We go	. Ken-kal .	•	•			Kan-kal-mēk going).	(in th	e aci	t of
209. You go	. Nan-kal .		•			ln-kal-mēk			
210. They go	. An-kal .		.'			An-kal-mék			

Banjogi 'Chittacong Hill Tracts,	Pinkhi : Chittarony Hill Trants).	Kog iso.
		155. I heat . Pint Ten e/c.
······································	*****	led. Tl. m lentest - I sat Trust .
	•••••	IST. H. Deat (Part Truss).
n/	*****	148. We built Past Tenss .
	******	180. You but (Fast Truse).
	•••••	, 199. They beat (Past To see .
Kei-mā-ni tāā kā-vūak .	Kci-mā kā jel roa	. 191. I am beating.
Kei-mā-ui tūana kā-vūak .	Kei-mā kā jel en .	192. I was beating.
Kei-mū-ni kū-vūak roh .	Kei-mā ā (i.c., kā) jel	193. I had beaten.
Kei-mā-ni kā-vūak-kho-lai .	Kei khām jel kā or (sic.)	. 194. I may beat.
Kei-mā-ni kā-vāak-lai	Zel-kū-ti	. 195. I shall beat.
•••••	••••	196. Thou wilt beat.
•••••	-	197. He will beat.
	•••	198. We shall beat.
******	***	199. You will beat.
	•••	200. They will beat.
Kei-ma-ni kā-vūak-lai	Zel-kā-ti	201. I should leat.
An hanga vüak	. Kei-mā ā jel	202. I am beaten.
En (i.e. an ?) kā-vūak-rch	Ton ä jel	. 203. I was beaten.
Vüak kā dan-la	. Kei-mā ā jel-āt	. 204. I shall be beaten.
Kā kal-lai	. Kal ka-ti	. 205. I go.
Nang-mā kal	. Nang kal-15	206. Thou goest.
Anni ā-kal . ·	. Ānui-chū kal .	207. He goes.
•••		208. We go.
••••	r*****	209 You go.
		210. They go.
		KC. G.—175

English.	Lai (Haka).		Shonshe of Gangaw (F. H. Eliott).	Lushëi (Dulien).
211. I went	Ka-kal-sang .			Ka-kal-tâ
212. Thou wentest	Na-kal-sang .			I-kal-tâ
213. He went	A-kal-sang .		······	A-kal-tâ
214. We went	Kan-kal-sang .		* 10 404	Kan-kal
215. You went	Nan-kal-sang .		·····	In-kal
216. They went	An-kal-sang .		•••	An-kal
217. Go	Kal-lo		Shē	Kal-roh
218. Going	Kal-ling-mang			Kal-mêk
219. Gome	Kal-nāk		******	Kal-ta
220. What is your name?	Nª-min ho da shī ?		Nang-mā min ho-ta shē ? .	Tu-nge i mhing?
221. How old is this horse?	•••••		Hi myin hi a-kom yē-yauk- kai tsā ?	Hē sā-kor hi hi kum eng- zat nge ?
222. How far is it from here to Kashmir ?	Mahin Kashmir zê a lhät ?	shan da	(Kashmir) yai san sa lhat ?	Hē-tā ṭang-in Kashmir eng- chenā lhā nge ?
223. How many sons are there in your father's house?	<b></b>		•••••	I pā in-ā fā-pā eng-zat nge om ?
224. I have walked a long way to-day.	·····			Voinā lhā tak-ā ka-kal (or kaleng).
225. The son of my uncle is married to his sister.	<b></b>			Ka-pā fā-pā-in a-far-nū nupui-ā a-nei.
226. In the house is the saddle of the white horse.	•••••			In chhung-ā sā-kor var thuam a-om.
227. Put the saddle upon his back.	••••	٠	<b></b>	Sā-kor thuam a-nhung-ā dah-roh.
228. I have beaten his son with many stripes.				Ā-mā fā-pā tiang-in voi tam-tak ka-vua.
229. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.	•			Tläng chhip-ä ä-mä-in ran châ a-ei-tir.
230. He is sitting on a horse under that tree.				Thing nhuai a sā-kor chung-ā a-ṭhū.
231. His brother is taller than his sister.	•••••		<b></b>	A-far-nű ai-in a-ű-nao a- shāng-zāk.
232. The price of that is two rupees and a half.				A-man cheng nhih leh duli a-ni.

Bani g : ( hittngrag Hill Tracts).	Pānkhū Culturgong Hill i ruc's,	¥ = (g),193a
Kei-mā kā-kal-ro	Kei-chā kā kalīna	žil. I went.
· ·	Kei chu kā (i.e. nang- chū nā) kai rea.	212. Then wentest.
Appi 4-kal-ro	Ānni-chā kai	213. He went.
	•••••	214. We went.
. <b></b>	*****	215. You went.
		216. They went.
Ā-kal	Kalro	217. Go.
Kā kal-ā	•••••	218. Going.
Kal-ro	Kal-roa	219. Gone.
Nang min āo?	Na rmin ā-tū ?	220. What is your name?
Hi rang kūm zē-zā-sā-ti? .	Në sa-kor kum ka-ja-ka? .	221. How old is this horse?
Hi-tok-in Kashmir kār zē- zān-sā-ti?	O-mā thak-hin Kashmir ko- ten-kā?	222. How far is it from here to Kashmir?
Nang in-ā nā-pā fā zē-zā-sā um ?	Ni-pā inn-ā mi-pā nāo ko-jā- kā-en om ?	223. How many sons are there in your father's house?
Tū-tsūn lām lā-tā kā-toi .	Vei-ni hin së yël ka kal.	224. I have walked a long way to-day.
Kā-pū fā-nū kassit (?) .	Kā-pā sūa-pūi nāo-in ā- char-nū ā-nei.	225. The son of my uncle is married to his sister.
Hi in-ā rang ā-nāo zing- pāan to-fa o-um.	O-mā inn-ā sā-kor chung chuana ā om.	226. In the house is the sad- dle of the white horse.
Āo hi-hi ki-ken tlūna vāshya.	Ā-nūng-ā sā-būng chuon-ro.	227. Put the saddle upon his back.
Kei-mā-ni hi fā-hi kā-vūak- chiam.	Anni nao ho kā jel	22S. I have beaten his son with many stripes.
Hi hi kunvālmi ā-zāo rol pē.	Ho rūm noyā rumbā kālā ā kāl.	229. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.
Khi tin tāngā rang kēng tlūna ā-tān.	Ānni ho thin thoyā ān-thâ-rāo.	230. He is sitting on a horse under that tree.
Anni ngākin hi hi sang dau	Ä-chūs-pūi-pā ā-char-nū nākan au-chāng.	231. His brother is taller than his sister.
Himān hi tāngā ni lēh āshyao.	O-mā mān tānkā ni nungun ādāli.	232. The price of that is two rupees and a half-
	1	F -C G 177

English.	Lai (Haka).	Shoushe of Gangaw (F. H. Eliott).	Lushëi (Dulicn).
233. My father lives in that small house.		<b></b>	Ka-pā in te-tak chhung-ä a-om.
234. Give this rupee to him	******	<b></b> .	Ā-mā nhen-ā hē tangka hi pē-roh.
235. Take those rupees from him.	q <del>p-</del> 141	<b>,</b> .	Ā-mā nhenā-tā tangka tē pē-lā-roh.
236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes.	•••••		Ā-mā thā-takin vēl-lā rhui- in phuar-roh.
237. Draw water from the well.			Tui-khuah-ā-tā tui chci- roh.
238. Walk before me .	*****	** ***	Ka-mhā-ā kal-roh
239. Whose boy comes behind you?		*****	Tū nao-pang nge i-nhung- ā kal ?
240. From whom did you buy that?			Khoiā-tā i-lei-nge?
241. From a shopkeeper of the village.			Khuā-ā dârkai nhenā tā .

Banjigi (Chittagong Hill Tracts).	Pänkhū (Chittagong Hill Tracts).	English.
Kā-pā khi in tē-ā ā-ām.	Kā-pā in tē-ā om	233. My father lives in that small house.
Hi tāngā hi khi va-pē .	O-mā tānkā ānni ho pa-ngei kā-ti.	234. Give this rapee to him.
Hi tāngā hi khi chinnā va- lā.	O-mā tānkā hong-choy-rang	235. Take those rupees from him.
Hi hi vüak rēai-in phūar .	Jel-chea-in-lā poa-rang .	236. Bent him well and bind him with ropes.
Ti hi khūr-in nūk	Tũi làk-à tũi hong-thân-ro .	237. Draw water from the well.
Kei-mā va-kal	Kei-mā māk-ti-č kal-ro .	239. Walk before me.
Nā dūng lēi-mi ā-fā-tsā? .	Ne nüngka-ti-ē ā-tū nao hong-kal?	239. Whose boy comes behind you?
Hi hi ā-shin-sā nē-sak? .	Mā-hā tū kũng-mēn mē (i.e. nē) chēng ?	240. From whom did you buy that?
Hi kūa chen chinā kā-sak .	O-ho-mā kūa dokāndār kūngā kā-ten.	241. From a shopkeeper of the village.

### OLD-KUKI SUB-GROUP.

The Old-Kuki sub-group comprises several dialects which are so closely connected that they cannot have had a long independent development of their own. They are as follows:—

				•					TOTAL	, at le	est		.46,564	
Mhār,	"	31	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	2,000	
Châ,	33	31	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	(?)	. •
Kom,	71	99	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•		750	(7)
Kolr <del>ë</del> n,	97	39	•	•	•	•	•	•					750	
Chiru,	71	77	•	•	•	•				•	•		750	
Aimol,	"	"	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•		750	(2)
Langrong,	21	>>	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		6,266	(1)
Hallām,	27	27	•	•		•	•		•		•	•	26,848	
Bētē,	"	>>	•	•	•	•	•	•				•	630	
Rängkhol,	spoke	n by	•	•	•	•		•		•			7,820	

To these must probably be added the remnants of the Chote, Muntuk, and Karum tribes in the Manipur State, and three dialects in Manipur which have been largely influenced by Meithei. These latter dialects are:—

								To	TAL	-	2,250
Hiroi-Lamgang, spoken by	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	750 (?)
Anal, " "	•	. •	•	•	•	•	•	•			750 (?)
Pürüm, spoken by											

The grand total would then be at least 48,814.

Anal and Hiroi-Lamgang are most influenced by Meithei, and will probably soon be superseded by that language. These two dialects and Kom in some points agree with the Naga languages.

Châ is, as yet, almost unknown. It seems, however, to agree so closely with the other dialects of the group that it must be classed with them.

The Old Kuki tribes seem to have been settled in Lushai land about a century ago. They were driven out by the Thados, and the Mhar tribe was probably left behind. This dialect has come under the influence of Lushei, and is a link between that language and Old Kuki. The whole sub-group is very closely related to the Central Chin languages.

## RANGKHÖL.

The Rāngkhōls or Rengkhāls are now found in Hill Tippera and North Cachar. The following figures have been returned:—

								•			Num	ber	of speakers.	
Hill Tippera	•	•	•	•	•	•			•	•	•	•	4,500	
North Cachar	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		2,400	
										To	TAL		6,900	

To this total must probably be added 920 individuals in the Khasi and Jaintia Hills. They were returned as speaking Kuki.

Mr. C. A. Soppitt makes the following statement with regard to their earlier history:—

'About the middle of the sixteenth century, as near as can be ascertained, the Rangkhols (Kukis) inhabited the country now occupied by the Lushais, bordering Cachar, and their neighbours were the Bētēs (Kukis), with whom they were on friendly terms and whose language and their own was practically the same. In other words, the Bētēs were a co-tribe, though not one and the same. The present Jansens (Kukis) lived in the hills immediately at the back of the Rangkhols, and commenced to oppress them, by degrees succeeding in driving them nearer and nearer the plains, and then ultimately out of the country across Cachar into the North Cachar Hills and Manipur, a small body taking refuge in Tipperah territory. Scarcely had the Rangkhols been driven out, when the Bētēs found themselves in much the same position as regards the oppression exercised by the Jansens, and following in the footsteps of their friends (the Rangkhols), crossed into Cachar. We thus find the Rangkhols and their co-tribe, the Bētēs, driven out of Lushāi-land (now so-called), not by the people called Lushais, though they may or may not have indirectly aided the exodus, but by the Jansens (Kukis). The first settlers in the North Cachar Hills, then under the Kachari 'Raj', paid tribute regularly to the Rāja at Maibong; but they do not appear to have been otherwise interfered with by the Kacharis, with whom they lived on the best of terms.'

The immigration of the Rangkhöls into Cachar took place somewhere between 1810 and 1820 and seems to have been indirectly due to the forward movement of the Lusheis under Lallula, which began about 1810.

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- SOPPITT, C. A.—A short Account of the Kuki-Lushai Tribes on the North-East Frontier (Districts Cachar, Sylhet, Nága Hills, etc., and the North Cachar Hills), with an Outline Grammar of the Rangkhol-Lushai Language and A Comparison of Lushai with other Dialects. Shillong, 1887.
- DAVIS, A. W., Gazetteer of the North Lushai Hills. Compiled under the Orders of the Chief Commissioner of Assam. Shillong, 1894. Short note on the Rangkhols on pp. 3 and f.

A translation of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and a list of standard words and phrases have been received from North Cachar. The spelling in both is very inconsistent. I have printed the parable exactly as I have received it, but I have subjoined, in italics, a text, corrected so far as is possible, to agree with Mr. Soppitt's grammar. In the list of words I have corrected the spelling, so far as I could, and in several places have added the corresponding forms and words from Mr. Soppitt's book. The notes on Rangkhöl grammar which follow are based on Mr. Soppitt's account and on the specimens.

Pronunciation.—Several points regarding the pronunciation must remain uncertain. The short a is pronounced like the a in 'company.' The sound ü (as in German' Mühe') is said to occur, but to be very rare. Mr. Soppitt often writes an h before or after a long vowel; thus, hōm, to be (but ōmāk, i.e., ōm-māk, no); mōh, the interrogative particle, etc. He does not say anything about the pronunciation of this h, and, in accordance with the practice in nearly connected dialects, such as Hallām and Langrong, I have not adopted it. The vowels i and e seem to be interchangeable in some places. Thus we find the prefix in consistently written en by Mr. Soppitt. The sound is perhaps an open i. Thus, in-kāt, Soppitt en-kāt, one. Sometimes a final ī is nasalised; thus, nō-nī or nō-nīng, not. The termination ing often corresponds to in in connected languages; thus, ā-reng-ing, Hallām ā-rēng-in, all, etc. Mr. Soppitt remarks that the letter g in his book sometimes denotes the deep guttural k. He perhaps

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wrote q, but g has been everywhere printed. It is therefore impossible to tell in which words the deep guttural k occurs. A soft consonant in many cases corresponds to a tenuis in connected languages of the group. Thus,  $g\bar{e}$ - $m\bar{a}$ , Hallām kei- $m\bar{a}$ , I;  $g\bar{e}l$ , Hallām  $k\bar{e}l$ , goat;  $b\bar{a}s\bar{a}l$ , Hallām  $p\bar{a}$ -sal, male;  $j\bar{u}$ , Hallām chu, a demonstrative particle; hcng-jci, Hallām hong-choi, bring, etc. The soft consonant often represents a more ancient stage of phonetical development. Rāngkhōl in this respect agrees with the languages of the Nāgā and Bodo Groups. Hard and soft consonants, however, sometimes interchange in the same word. Thus,  $g\bar{e}$  and  $k\bar{e}$ , foot; goi and koi, call;  $g\bar{u}t$  and  $k\bar{u}t$ , hand. The real sound of such consonants is, therefore, probably, something between hard and soft. They are hard lenes.

RÂNGKHŌL.

Sh and s are sometimes interchangeable. Thus,  $s\tilde{a}$ , gcod,  $sh\tilde{a}$ - $m\tilde{a}k$ , bad. Consonants are occasionally silent; thus,  $p\tilde{e}k$  and  $p\tilde{e}$ , give, etc.

Articles.—There are no articles. The numeral  $k\bar{a}t$  one, may be used as an indefinite article, while definiteness is expressed by means of demonstrative pronouns and relative clauses.

**Nouns.**—Nouns denoting relationship, and parts of the body are apparently always preceded by pronominal prefixes. Thus,  $ga-\bar{u}-p\bar{a}$ , elder brother; lit, my elder brother;  $\bar{a}-p\bar{\imath}ng$ , belly, lit, his belly.  $Ga-p\bar{a}$  is said to mean 'a father,' but it is still uncertain whether this use of ga and ka is correct, and I have not found any instance of it in the sentences given by Mr. Soppitt. Such forms occur several times in the texts.

Gender.—Gender is only distinguished in the case of animate beings. In the case of human beings different words may be used. Thus,  $m\bar{\imath}-rim$ , man;  $n\bar{\imath}-reng$ , woman:  $b\bar{a}-s\bar{a}l$ , male;  $n\bar{\imath}-p\bar{a}ng$ , female:  $r\bar{\imath}-t\bar{a}r-t\bar{e}$ , boy;  $dau-m\bar{a}-t\bar{e}$ , girl. The common suffixes used to distinguish the gender are  $p\bar{a}$  and  $b\bar{a}-s\bar{a}l$ , male;  $n\bar{\imath}$  and  $n\bar{\imath}-p\bar{\imath}ng$ , female. Thus,  $v\bar{a}r-p\bar{a}$ , an old man;  $v\bar{a}r-n\bar{\imath}$ , an old woman:  $nai-b\bar{a}-s\bar{a}l$ , son; nai  $n\bar{\imath}-p\bar{\imath}ng$ , daughter. In the case of animals the corresponding suffixes are  $\bar{a}-j\bar{a}l$ , male, and  $\bar{a}-n\bar{\imath}-p\bar{a}ng$ , female. Thus,  $s\bar{e}-rh\bar{a}t$   $\bar{a}-j\bar{a}l$ , bull;  $s\bar{e}-rh\bar{a}t$   $\bar{a}-n\bar{\imath}-p\bar{a}ng$ , cow. In the list of words they are given as  $j\bar{a}l$  and  $n\bar{\imath}$ ; thus,  $g\bar{e}l-j\bar{a}l$ , a he goat;  $g\bar{e}l-n\bar{\imath}$ , a she goat.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. No suffix is used when the number appears from the context. When it is necessary to distinguish the plural, the suffix hai is added. Thus, mī-rim-hai, men. In mal-ha-le, friends with, ha, instead of hai, is probably only a blunder. Mal seems to correspond to Hallām kā-māl, friend. In the corrected text I have therefore written mal-hai-lē. Hai seems also to be a demonstrative pronoun or the suffix of a noun of agency. Thus, in-shin-hai ā-tī-tā, the servant he said; gālīm-hai er-mīng ī-mō, the 'galim's' name what? The suffix hai is sometimes added to the verb; thus, tū-tē ā-ōm-mā-hai, anybody they are not. Compare also ā-mā kū-hai, his village-of (they are), i.e. (they belong to) his village; mī-rim ā-hūng-hai, the men they-came-they, the men that came.

Case.—Mr. Soppitt enumerates eight cases, nominative, accusative, instrumental, dative, ahlative, genitive, locative, and vocative, but his own instances show that Rāng-khōl does not, in this respect, differ from other connected languages. The base alone, without any suffix, is used as a Nominative, an Accusative, and a Vocative. This form is apparently also used when the noun is the subject of a transitive verb; thus, mī-rim-hai būhōm ā-tā, the-men the-paddy they-have-cut. This is also often the case in other Tibeto-Burman languages when the acting subject is known as such from the context;

e.g., in Tibetan, both in modern talk and in the classical literature. There are a few traces of the common suffix in, or ing (see above), used to denote the subject of a transitive verb. Thus, ā-nai-ing vai mān-rāng, his sons alone get-will (will get); mī-dāng-īn ā-mū, the other-men they-saw; mī-rim en-kāt-īn en-kāt ā-tāt-tā, the men one one they-killed, the men killed each other. The Dative is denoted by means of postpositions such as kā and ā. Thus, ā-mā-kā sī-lai pē-rō, him-to gun gives; gē ā-māhai-ā shūm ā-pē-tā, I them-to money gave. In ā-mā-kat tī-rung, him-to I say will, kat is perhaps only a mistake for  $k\bar{a}$ . An Ablative is formed by adding the postpositions  $\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$ or  $t\bar{a}k$ ; thus, ga- $p\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}k$ , my father from;  $m\bar{e}$ - $\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$   $t\bar{i}ng$   $t\bar{a}$ - $r\bar{o}$ , fire from wood take. The list of standard words has a suffix jung-a or jung, and adds the former in the singular after  $t\bar{a}k$ , the latter in the plural before  $t\bar{a}k$ . Thus,  $g\alpha$ - $p\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}k$   $j\bar{u}ng$ -a, from a father;  $g\alpha$ pā-jung-tak, from fathers. The two instances just given show the great inconsistency in the spelling of the list. The suffix  $j\bar{u}ng\cdot\bar{a}$  is certainly identical with  $ch\bar{u}ng\cdot\bar{a}$ , in, on, from, in other languages such as Lushei, Hallam, etc. The Genitive is denoted by putting the governed before the governing noun; thus, ga-pā-tēr bā-sāl, my uncle's son. The governed noun may be repeated by means of a possessive pronoun; thus, mī-rim ā lū, the man his head. Mr. Soppitt mentions a genitive suffix nī, the list of words nī and mō. No instances are given of the use of either by Mr. Soppitt. The list of words gives kuo-mō bēpāri, a shop-keeper of the village. The suffix  $n\bar{\imath}$  may be meant in the words gē-mā ā-pa-īn īn-shīn-hai, my father's-of servants, if I am right in correcting to  $g\bar{e}$ - $m\bar{a}$   $\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{i}$ . If that be so then the suffix  $n\bar{i}$  is probably the verb substantive, and is used as a relative participle; thus, 'my father's-being servants.' The suffix of the Locative is  $\bar{a}$ ; thus,  $r\bar{a}m-\bar{a}$ , country-in;  $\bar{\imath}n-\bar{a}$ , house-in. Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions, such as  $\bar{a}$ -nai, near;  $\bar{a}$ -ni- $\bar{a}$ , on account of; en-nung, behind; jān-pui, together with; lē, with; mā-tōn-ā, before; shūng-ā, into; tēn or tīng, in, etc. A postposition gung or gang occurs in two places, ga-pa-gung, his father to; an-jungang, harlots with. It is probably identical with kūng which is found in one instance in Mr. Soppitt's grammar; thus, ā-mā tũ-kũng mō bũ-fai ā-mān-tā, he whom-from rice he bought? Compare māi-kūng-ā, before, in Kolrēn and similar forms in Aimol, Anāl, Chiru, Kom, etc.

Adjectives.—The adjectives follow the noun they qualify, and suffixes are added to them, and not to the qualified nouns. The adjectives, however, precede the noun when special stress is laid on them; thus,  $\bar{a}n\bar{a}-l\bar{e}$   $\bar{a}-s\bar{a}$   $p\bar{a}-tin$   $\bar{a}-t\bar{o}$   $sh\bar{a}-m\bar{a}k$   $p\bar{a}-t\bar{i}n$   $\bar{a}-t\bar{o}-m\bar{o}$ , sickness-being, good gods they-worship, (or) bad gods they-worship?

The suffix of the Comparative is  $\bar{o}l$ , and of the Superlative  $t\bar{a}k$ ; thus,  $\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$ - $ha\bar{i}$  in  $sh\bar{o}$ - $ha\bar{i}$  in  $\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{i}n$ - $\bar{o}l$ , this house that house (than) greater;  $\bar{u}$ - $l\bar{i}n$ - $t\bar{a}k$ , the eldest brother. The suffixes  $\bar{o}l$  and  $t\bar{a}k$  can be optionally omitted; thus,  $\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$   $\bar{a}$ - $\bar{u}$ - $p\bar{a}$   $\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$   $g\bar{a}$ - $\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{u}$   $\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{i}n$   $\bar{a}$   $\bar{o}m$ , his brother his sister (than) tall he is;  $p\bar{u}l$   $\bar{a}$ -reng-ing  $\bar{a}$ - $sh\bar{a}$ , cloth all (than) good.

Numerals.— The numerals are given in the list of words. Mr. Soppitt gives en as the prefix of the first numerals instead of in in the list. It is probably a generic prefix. But no rule is given for its use, and we find for instance  $m\bar{\imath}$ -rim  $k\bar{a}t$  and  $m\bar{\imath}$ -rim en- $k\bar{a}t$ , hoth meaning a man. The prefix  $d\bar{a}r$  is used when the numerals refer to money,  $d\bar{o}ng$  when they refer to houses. Thus,  $d\bar{a}r$  shōm- $t\bar{u}m$   $l\bar{e}$  ring $\bar{a}$ , thirty-five rupees;  $d\bar{o}ng$  shōm  $m\bar{\imath}$ - $l\bar{\imath}$ , forty houses. The numerals follow the noun they qualify.

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Pronouns.—The following are the Personal pronouns: -
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Singular.
                                                                          Pinral.
gē-mā, gē, ga, I, my.
                                                      gē-mā-hai, gē-hai, gē-nī-hai, gē-nī,
gė-nī, mine.
                                                         we. ur.
nang, nang-mā, thou.
                                                      gē-mā-hai-nī, ours.
nang, nang-mā, nē, nī, thy.
                                                      nang-mā-hai, nang-nī, you, your.
nang-mā, thine.
                                                      nang-nī, nang-mā-hai-nī, your, yours.
\bar{a}-m\bar{a}, m\bar{i}, he, she, it.
                                                      ā-mū-hai, mī-hai, they.
\bar{a}-m\bar{a}, \bar{a}, his, her, its.
                                                      ā-mā-hai, mī-hai, their.
\bar{a}-m\bar{a}-n\bar{\imath}, his, hers, its.
                                                      ũ-mũ-hai-nĩ, theirs.
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The above list is a combination of the forms given by Mr. Soppitt and of those given in the list of words. The former authority states that the plural suffix hai is rarely used in the first and second persons plural. He also considers  $m\tilde{a}$  in  $g\tilde{e}$ - $m\tilde{a}$ , etc., as a genitive suffix. The use of the suffix  $n\tilde{\iota}$  in the genitive has already been referred to. Mr. Soppitt gives  $g\tilde{e}$ - $m\tilde{a}$  for 'mine' and 'ours' and mang- $m\tilde{a}$  for 'thine' and 'yours.' The ordinary suffixes may be added. Thus,  $\tilde{a}$ - $m\tilde{a}$   $\tilde{a}$ - $g\tilde{c}$ , he his foot. Note  $g\tilde{e}$ - $m\tilde{a}$   $\tilde{a}$ -mai, my daughter, not  $g\tilde{e}$ -mai  $g\tilde{e}$ -nai. The  $\tilde{a}$  has here become a real suffix of the genitive. Compare Pronominal prefixes to verbs, below, and Introduction, p. 17.

The Reflexive pronoun is perhaps en; thus, jong, word; en-jong, dispute.

The Demonstrative pronouns are  $\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$ -hi, this;  $\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$ , that;  $sh\bar{o}$ -hai, that;  $k\bar{u}$ -hai, that;  $k\bar{u}$ -hai-

There is no *Belative pronoun*. Participles and interrogative pronouns are used instead. Thus,  $\bar{a}$ -rōt-pū-hai  $\bar{a}$ -hōng-tā, the-runners-away they-have-come;  $m\bar{i}$ -rim  $\bar{a}$ -hōng-hai  $f\bar{e}$ -nōg-tā, men they-came-they returned, the men who came returned;  $g\bar{e}$ -mā  $n\bar{e}$ -nūn  $\bar{i}$ -jā-mā  $\bar{a}$ -mā-ka-ka nāng-mā  $n\bar{e}$ -nūn, my property how-much? that thy property, all that is mine is thine.

Interrogative pronouns.—Tū-mō, who?  $\bar{\imath}$ -mō, what?  $\bar{\imath}$ -jā-mō and  $\bar{\imath}$ -dōr-mō, how many?  $\bar{\imath}$ -tō-mō, what is the matter? Thus, tū-mō sē-rhāt or tū-sē-rhāt-mō, whose cow?  $\bar{\imath}$ -mō shīl, what mithan?

Indefinite pronouns.—Tū-tē, anyone; ī-tē, anything, any; ī-dōr, so many, etc.

Verbs.—Verbs may be conjugated in person and number by means of pronominal prefixes. I have come across the following:—

 $g\bar{e}$  and ga, I;  $g\bar{e}n$ , gin, gan, and  $g\bar{e}$ , we:  $n\bar{i}$  and  $n\bar{e}$ , thou; nin and  $n\bar{e}$ , you:  $\bar{a}$ , he, she, it;  $\bar{a}$  or an, they. There is, as will be seen, some irregularity in the spelling, and the singular forms are also used in the plural. The prefixes are apparently very often dropped, and  $\bar{a}$  may be substituted for all of them. Thus, nang  $\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{i}$ -tin  $g\bar{e}$ - $m\bar{a}$   $j\bar{u}n$ -pui  $\bar{a}$ - $\bar{o}m$ - $t\bar{a}$ , thou always me with wast. This fact corresponds to the use of  $\bar{a}$  in forming possessive pronouns. The pronominal prefixes can themselves be considered as possessive pronouns added to the word which has the function of the verb.

The root alone without any suffix is freely used to denote present and past times; thus,  $g\hat{e} f\hat{e}$ , I go;  $\hat{a}$ - $m\hat{a}$ - $hai \hat{a}$ - $t\hat{i}$ , they said;  $g\hat{e} jcm$ , I am, or was, beating.

A Present definite and an Imperfect seem also to be formed by adding  $\bar{e}n$  or  $l\bar{e}$ ; thus,  $m\bar{\imath}$ -rim-hai  $k\bar{u}$ - $\bar{a}$   $\bar{a}$   $\bar{o}m$ - $\bar{e}n$ , men village-in they are living;  $s\bar{a}$ - $j\bar{u}k$ -hai ram- $\bar{a}$   $\bar{a}$   $\bar{o}m$ - $l\bar{e}$ , deer jungle-in they are-living.

The suffix of the Past tenses is  $t\bar{a}$ ; thus,  $\bar{a}$   $t\bar{a}t-t\bar{a}$ , he killed.  $T\bar{\imath}n\bar{a}$ , formerly, may be added before the verb; thus,  $t\bar{\imath}n\bar{a}$   $\bar{a}$   $t\bar{\imath}-t\bar{a}$ , formerly he died, he had died. Compare compound verbs.

The suffix of the *Future* is  $r\bar{a}ng$ , probably identical with the infinitive suffix. The pronominal prefixes seem to be regularly dropped before the future. Thus,  $f\bar{e}$ - $r\bar{a}ng$   $t\bar{i}$ - $r\bar{a}ng$ , I will go and say. This tense is commonly used in order to denote the purpose; thus,  $g\bar{e}l$ - $t\bar{e}$  en- $k\bar{a}t$   $n\bar{i}$   $p\bar{e}$ - $m\bar{a}k$   $m\bar{a}l$ -hai- $l\bar{e}$   $f\bar{a}$ - $r\bar{a}ng$ , kid one thou gavest-not friends-with (that I) might-eat. Compare Infinitive, below.

The suffix of the *Imperative* is  $r\bar{o}$ , plural  $r\bar{o}i$ ; thus,  $p\bar{e}$ - $r\bar{o}$ , give;  $\bar{o}m$ - $r\bar{o}$ -i, be you. The plural form is very seldom used.  $R\bar{o}$  often occurs in connection with another suffix  $sh\bar{e}$ ; thus,  $m\bar{i}$ - $d\bar{a}ng$   $\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{o}$ - $r\bar{o}$ - $sh\bar{e}$ , let others do it;  $n\bar{a}ng$   $\bar{i}$ - $t\bar{i}g$ - $m\bar{o}$   $m\bar{i}$ - $r\bar{i}m$ -hai  $p\bar{e}$ - $r\bar{o}$ - $sh\bar{e}$ , thou when men give-wilt? When will you give the men? This form seems to correspond to the Lushēi imperative of the third person (thus, ni- $r\bar{o}$ - $s\bar{e}$ , let him, or them, be), but is also used to form a future, as above, and, most commonly, as an infinitive of purpose; thus,  $\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$   $s\bar{a}$ - $j\bar{u}k$   $j\bar{o}ng$ - $r\bar{o}$ - $sh\bar{e}$   $\bar{a}$   $f\bar{e}$ , he deer to-seek he goes. In the negative imperative  $n\bar{o}$  is prefixed to  $r\bar{o}$ ; thus,  $\bar{o}m$ - $n\bar{o}$ - $r\bar{o}$ , be not.

The suffix of the *Infinitive* is  $r\bar{a}ng$ ; thus,  $f\bar{a}$ - $r\bar{a}ng$   $l\bar{e}$ - $r\bar{a}ng$   $\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{a}$ - $r\bar{a}ng$ , to-eat to-drink good-will-be;  $\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$ -hai  $f\bar{e}$ - $r\bar{a}ng$   $\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{i}$ , they to-go it-is, they should go;  $l\bar{a}m$ - $r\bar{a}ng$  en- $r\bar{i}t$ - $t\bar{a}$ , dancing he heard. As mentioned above, this form is identical with the future; thus,  $n\bar{a}g$ - $t\bar{u}k$   $g\bar{e}$ - $j\bar{a}n$ -pui  $h\bar{o}ng$ - $r\bar{o}$ ,  $s\bar{a}$ - $j\bar{u}k$   $k\bar{a}p$ - $r\bar{a}ng$ , to-morrow me-with come, deer to shoot, or, we will shoot deer. I have not found any instance of the root alone used as a verbal noun, but there is no reason to doubt that it may be used in that way. It is the base of most participles and compound verbs.

Participles.—The suffixes  $\bar{a}$  and  $\bar{e}n-t\bar{e}$  (or  $\bar{e}n-j\bar{u}$ ) are both used to form Conjunctive participles. Thus,  $\bar{a}$   $k\bar{a}p-\bar{a}$   $m\bar{i}$ -rim  $\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}t$ - $t\bar{a}$ , he firing the man he killed;  $\bar{a}$ - $r\bar{o}t$ - $\bar{a}$   $\bar{a}$ -in- $k\bar{u}$ , he-running he embraced; nang  $\bar{a}$ - $f\bar{e}$ - $\bar{e}n$ - $t\bar{e}$  shūm mān- $r\bar{a}ng$ , you going money get-will. The participle ending in  $\bar{e}n$ - $t\bar{e}$  is commonly used as a subjunctive mood. The suffix  $l\bar{e}$  forms Adverbial participles; thus,  $\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{e}$  shā- $m\bar{a}k$   $p\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{i}n$   $\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{o}$ , ill-being, evil god they worship, when they are ill they worship evil spirits. A Noun of agency is formed by adding the suffix  $p\bar{u}$ ; thus,  $\bar{a}$ - $\bar{o}m$ - $r\bar{a}ng$ - $p\bar{u}$ , the man who will be.  $P\bar{a}$  may be substituted for  $p\bar{u}$ , without changing the sense.

The Passive voice may be expressed by prefixing the participle ending in  $\bar{e}n$ - $t\bar{e}$  or  $\bar{e}n$ - $j\bar{u}$  to the verb ni, to be; thus,  $\bar{a}$ - $g\bar{o}i$ - $\bar{e}n$ - $j\bar{u}$   $\bar{a}$ -ni, I am called, lit. 'he-calling it-is.' This form seems, however, to be very rare, and the passive voice is commonly not distinguishable in form from the active, but can only be recognised from the context. Thus,  $m\bar{a}n$ - $n\bar{o}k$ - $t\bar{a}$  he is found again. Forms such as  $g\bar{e}$ - $j\bar{e}m$ - $f\bar{a}k$ , I am beaten, in the list of words literally mean 'I-beating-cat.'

Compound verbs.—Several prefixes are used in forming compound verbs. Hong denotes motion towards the speaker; thus,  $h\bar{o}ng$ -koi, to call;  $h\bar{o}ng$ -jci, to bring. It or er makes the verb causative; thus, mu, see; er- $m\bar{u}$ , show; er- $b\bar{u}n$ , to cause to put on, etc. Causatives are also formed by adding the verb  $p\bar{e}k$ , to give; thus, en, to see; en- $p\bar{e}$ - $r\bar{o}$ , show. A potential is formed by adding the verb  $t\bar{e}$ , to be able, or allowed to; thus, nang  $k\bar{a}m$   $t\bar{o}$ - $t\bar{e}$ - $t\bar{a}$ , you work do-could. The verb  $j\bar{o}i$ , to complete, finish, is very commonly added to other verbs and forms a kind of past tenses. Thus,  $\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$   $sh\bar{u}m$   $\bar{a}$ -renging  $\bar{a}$ -pai- $j\bar{o}i$ - $t\bar{a}$ , he money all he-to-squander-finished, he had wasted all his money;  $g\bar{e}$   $\bar{a}$ - $\bar{o}m$ - $j\bar{o}i$ - $r\bar{a}ng$ , I shall have been, etc. ()ther words added in order to form compound verbs are,  $b\bar{a}k$ , much, very;  $k\bar{\iota}$ , back;  $n\bar{o}$  or  $n\bar{o}k$ , back, again;  $r\bar{a}t$ , quickly;  $n\bar{a}ki$ , exactly, etc.

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The Negative particles are  $m\bar{a}k$ ,  $m\bar{a}\bar{n}ng$ ,  $lc\bar{c}$ , and  $n\bar{o}\cdot ni$ . Thus,  $p\bar{e}\cdot m\bar{a}k$ . gave not; shin-manny, did not; sha-loi, good-not, evil;  $ti-lc-n\bar{o}\cdot ni$ , call-can-not. In the present tense, and after the suffix  $t\bar{a}$  in the past tenses,  $n\bar{c}ni$ , is the regular negative; in the future,  $m\bar{a}k$  or  $ni-m\bar{a}k$ ; in the past tense formed without a suffix,  $m\bar{a}k$ ; in the imperative,  $n\bar{o}$ ; and in the past tense of the compounds formed by adding  $j\bar{o}i$ ,  $m\bar{a}\bar{u}ng$  is said to be the correct form. Another negative particle  $b\bar{u}i$  seems to occur in words such as  $\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{u}i$ - $t\bar{e}$ , without;  $d\bar{i}r$ - $b\bar{u}i$ , naked, etc. Compare Thado  $p\bar{o}i$ .

The Interrogative particle is  $m\bar{o}$ . Its position seems to be somewhat free. Thus, nang  $k\bar{o}$ -ting- $m\bar{o}$   $n\bar{i}$ -fe, you where you-go?  $\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$ -hai  $k\bar{o}$ -ting  $\bar{a}$ - $\bar{o}m$ - $m\bar{o}$ , they where they-are? That is to say, the interrogative particle may be added to the verb, or to an interrogative pronoun.

Adjectives are freely used as verbs. In the present tense the suffix  $t\bar{a}$  is added. Thus,  $\bar{a}$   $s\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$ , it good is;  $g\bar{e}$ - $t\bar{i}$ - $d\bar{o}r$ - $t\bar{a}$ , I dead-like-am;  $\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{a}$ - $r\bar{a}ng$ , it good be will.

Order of words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb.

[No. 15.]

# TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

# KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

### RANGKHÖL.

(DISTRICT, NORTH CACHAR.)

				,
Mi-riim in-kat-l	ē bashal in	n-ni a omta.	Nai-te ājīr	ıta gāpagūng
Mi-rim en-kät-lä	nai-bā-sāl e	n-nī ā ōm-tā.	Nai-tē ā-jīn	-tāk ā-pā-gūng
Man one-to		wo they were.	Son sma	ller bis-father-to
atita, Lukhana n	nang-mā nēn	ũn <b>āj</b> im <b>rip</b>	nīpērung,	ātūn nēpero,
ā-tī-tā, Lāgānā	nang-mā nē-	nūn ā-jim-rip	$m{n}$ ī- $par{e}$ - $rar{a}ng$ ,	ā-tun nē-pē-rō,
ise said, 'Afterwards	thou prope	rty-of half	thou-give-wilt,	now give,
āshārung.' Āmā-	ankan ajim	rep āpēkta.	Lukhana mīs	h <b>ār</b> ājīn naitē
ā-sā-rāng.' Ā-mā-ā	ing-kā <b>n</b> ā-jim	-rip ā-pēk-tā.	Lāgānā mī-	sā ā-jīn nai-tē
it-good-be-will.' Acon	dingly the-	he-gave.	Afterwards day	few son
ājīntā nē-nūn	arenging	āphūngtā	ākmūn	alhār āphēta.
ā-jīn-tāk nē-nūn	ā-rēng-in	ā-fūng-tā		$ar{a}$ -lh $ar{a}$ $ar{a}$ -f $ar{e}$ -t $ar{a}$ .
younger property	all	he-gathered	country	distant he-went.
Shōshana āphē shā	imalık, apēn	a āmā nēnī		apai joitā.
	$-m\bar{a}k, \qquad (?)$		1 1	ā-pai-jōi-tā.
There he-went	-badly, living	tis proper	ty totally	he-to-waste-finished.
Ā-ma shūm arengi	ng apaij	_	shāmāk ātakta	a. Āmātēnta
A-mā shūm ā-rēng		-	shā-māk ā-tūk-t	\ 0 - /
His property all		-completed, famine	bad it-becam	e. I hereupon
ājoitōr-jāmtār		nātēn ankān		miriim kātlē
		vā-(tīng)-āng-kān	ā-mā rām-ā	ī <b>mī-ri</b> m kāt-lē
		That-reason-for	that country-	in man one-with
aphēta jon-shīnhai				gdhör äpeng jang
ā-fē-tā jöng-shīn-hai		<b>Võk</b>		ng-dör ā-ping-jām
be-went servants'	work did.	Pigs to-feed	he-sent. Th	is-like hungry
shābai phurrung		phurung	nērung tū	tē pēmak.
(shā-rai) fā-rāng	$(\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{u}m)$ ,	fä-räng	nē-rang tū	∙tē pē-māk.
husks to-est	he-wished,	_	to-swallow any	one gave-not.
Āmātēn ājēntē	•	•		shinhai phurrung
Ā-mā-(tīng) ā-jīn-tē Then a-little	he-wise-more-becan		-	-shīn-hai fā-rāng
				servants to-eat
nērung āttām		gē phinjs	9	•
në-räng ä-tâm to-swallow much	ā-ōm; there-is;	gě ping-j	•	•
phērung āmākat		I hungr		-
fe-rang amakat fe-rang a-ma-k	Q,	"Gāpā,	Pāthiin she	
go-will him-te	ī ti-rāng, my-will,	" Ga-pā, " My-father,		i-loi gē-tō-tā,
nungma shaloi	gētūrta ;		God-of er	
nang-mä zhā-loi	gē-tō-tā ;	~ *		
they of soil	1-did:	ā-tūn gē-mā-ji	#	
		LIAT.	son-like	call-cun-not."

Amā	ādamlēt		• .	aphët <b>a.</b>	Alhār	āom,	attūnjó	āpā
Ā-mā	ā-dām-lē			ī-fē-tā.		ā-ūm,	ā-tūn-jū	ā-pā
He	arnee-at-once				Far	•	now-éven	
	ārōta	āinkū.		g ámá		'Gāpā,	Pāthiin	shaloi
ā-mū-tū			Nai-pān					sha-loi
h		he-embraced.	Son	hizz-to		'My father,		eril
_	nungmi		•	rta. Ā		ing göm		angdhor
•	nang-me		•				ā-jū nai-j	päng-dör
I-did	thre-of	evil	I-di			n me		n-like
titēmul	k.' A	pa ins	hinhaijū	āgoita,	'Pūl ā	renging	āshār h	ongjoiro
tī-tē-mā			hīn-hai-jū					ng-joi-ró
call-can-no		ather	servants			all-(than)	good	bring
āmālē	dēr-gairō,			gütshāb			iā āgē	jūtā
ā-mā-lē	(?)	ā-mā	•	güt-säle				jūtā
him-on	put,	his	hand-on	•				
	, shërhat		hongjoir					
	ō, shērhāt-							
cause-to-wes	ur, calif	fat	bring	kill,		eat-will		hарру (
attām c	imrung.	Gēmā	bāshal	ātita,	āttūn	ārhing-i	nō; ār	māngtā,
ā-tām č	īm-rāng.	Gē-mā 1	rai-bä <b>r</b> äl	ā-tī-tā,	ā-tūn	ā-rhing-1	nõg; ã-	māng-tā,
ASLÀ	be-will.	My	<b>2013</b>	he-died,	DOW	he-revived-ag	pain; h	e-lost-was,
āttūn	gēmun	oktā.'	Amātēr	a atān	infār	ing	ājoitā	•
ā-tū <b>n</b>	gē-mān-	nōg-tā.'	A-mā-tīt	ng-ā-tā	en-fä-r	äng	ä-jöi-t	ā.
DOM	I-found	again.	Therea	fier	together-fe	met-to	they-prepa	
Ān	nā. ũ	liinpā	łoi	āom	tā. I	În.	ānai ž	ihöngta,
A-	mā <b>ū</b>	-līn-pā	lõi-ā	ā-ōm-	tä.	[n		-hing-tā,
H	is a	der-son	feld-in	he-we	u. Ho	E16		he-came,
köngsliüi	nkrung	]	āmrung		inriikta	,	I	nshinhai
(1	<b>?</b> )		ām-rāng		en-rit-t	ā.	In	-shin-hai
drum-b	esting		dancing		heard.		8	ervants-of
inkāt	āhongko	i. Ar	nājū	inshinh	ai	ātīta,	· Kisl	unena
en-kät	ā-hōng-gō		sā-j <del>ū</del>	īn-shīn-		ā-tī-tā,	'Ni-s	hūm-pā
40.0	he-called.		m-to	SETTER		he-said,		ger-brother
ārhing	ähöng	kita,	nëpa	a)	erhāttē	āmā	r he	ongjoita
ä-rhing	-	(kir)- $ta$ ,	nē-pā		ërhät-të	<b>ām</b> ēlā		ng-jūi-tā
alive	he-cam		thy-father		calf	fat		brought
ātātta.	Ār	kalta	in	shüngha		phēmuk.	. 7	mäten
ā-tāt-tā.	A-1	lāl-tā		-shūng-ā		ā-fē-māk.		mā-(ting)
he-killed.		ry-became		ouse-inside		he-west-not.		berefore
apa	peng	teng	<u>ā</u> pliē	ātīta.	Ama	ijū s	mā	itinoi,
ā-pā	(?	_	ā-fē	a-tī-tā.	-			ā-tī-nōg,
-		7	-,-			•		~ ++ -1+Uy,
his-father	outs	ide	be-west	he-spoke.	His	n-to	he	he-said-back
	onin	_		_				he-said-back,
'Gēpā,	nang	mā jānp	ai güm	si	iōr <b>t</b>	shinion		he-mid-back, • eāti
	onin	mā jāupi mā jān-p	ai güm	si •	ıör <b>t</b>			-

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hāloi	angh	8.	shinmaö	ng;	gēllē	in	kat	nipa	muk,
		shīn-mān		üng ;	-		-kāt	nē-pē-mā	
transgressio	n any		sommitted	l-not;	kid		one	_	gavest-not
malhal	le pl	arung	lērur	ıg.	Atūn	naipung	gtē	āh	öngtā,
mal-hai-	lē fa	i-rāng	lē-rā	ng.	Ā-tūn	nai-pāng	-tē		ōng-tā,
friends-wit	h e	at-to	drink-	to.	Now	son-young	e <b>r</b>		ecame,
tiinā	nungmā	nēn	un :	ārenjeng		allakhta,	a	njūn	gang
tīnā	nang-mā	nē-n	ūn (	ā-rēng-ā	6	ī-lāk-tā,		(?)	kūng
formerly	thy	prope		all		he-took,		arlots	with
āhekta,	nung		shërhättë	ā	mār	nitāttā.	,		Apā
(?),	nang	é	shërhät-të	ān	เ <i>ē</i> lāsā	<b>n</b> ī-tāt-tā	,		$ar{A}$ -p $ar{a}$
he-consumed,	thou		calf		fat	thou-killed	t."	I	His-father
ātīta,	'Bāshal,	nung	anitin	gēmā	janpui	aōmtā,	gēmā	7	nēnūn
$\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{\imath}$ - $t\bar{a}$ ,	' Bā-sāl,	nang	ā-nītin	gē-mā	jān-pui	ā-ōm-tā,	gē-mā	7	iē-nūn
he-said,	'Son,	thou	always	me	with	wast,	my	7	property
ijāmo	āmāk <b>a</b> ka	. nu	ngma	nënun.	Kī	ishī ön	irung	ph	urung
$ar{\imath}$ - $jar{a}$ - $mar{o}$	ā-mā (-?	) na	ng-mā	nē-nūn.	Ku	shī ōn	r-rang		i-rāng
whatever	that	_	thy	property.	Hap	ру	be-to		eat-to
lërung	ässhärung	,	tiina		<b>n</b> ēshump	a	ātīta	,	attün
lē-rāng	ā-sā-rāng		tīn-ā	1	rē-shūm-p	ρā	$\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{\imath}$ - $t\bar{\epsilon}$	ī,	$ar{a}$ - $tar{u}n$
drink-to	it-good-be-wil	1,	formerly	thy	younger-bro	ther	he-died	,	now
āphēnökta	;	tiina	ārman	gta, at	tūn	munnökta			
ā-fē-nōg-tā	•	tīn-ā	ā-māng	g-tā, ā-	tūn	mān-nōg-t	$\bar{a}.$		
he-went-back	<b>;</b>	formerly	he-lost-	Wals, 1	OW	found-again-wa	is.		

### BETE.

The Boto tribe is closely connected with Rangkhol, and on being, together with this catter tribe, driven out of the Lushai Hills by the Thados, it also emigrated into North Cachar. Their number in this district is estimated at 630. There are also a few speakers in the Cachar Plaits. Short vocabularies have been published by Mesers. Stewart and Soppitt. The Boto dialect is so closely related to Rangkhol and the connected languages that there is probably little reason to regret that it has been impossible to procure any specimens.

### AUTHORITIES-

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A few remarks on Bete grammar will show the close connection of this dialect with Rangkhol, Hallam, Langrong, etc. There are not sufficient materials for giving a full sketch of the dialect.

The Personal pronouns form their plural by adding the suffix ni; thus, kei-mā-ni, we; nang-mā-ni, you. Mr. Soppitt has the form ā-mā-hai, they, with the same suffix as is usual in Rāngkhōl.

Verbs are conjugated in person by means of the pronominal prefixes  $k\bar{a}$ , I;  $n\bar{a}$ , thou;  $\bar{a}$ , he. The suffix of the past tenses is  $t\bar{a}$  or  $t\bar{a}k$ , and that of the future  $r\bar{a}ng$ . Thus, kei  $k\bar{a}$   $f\bar{e}$ , I go;  $\bar{a}$ - $h\bar{o}ng$ - $t\bar{a}$ , he came; kei  $f\bar{e}$ - $r\bar{a}ng$ , I shall go. Mr. Stewart gives kei  $f\bar{e}nke$ , I shall go, as an instance of the future.

The suffix of the *Imperative* is ro, and that of the negative imperative no-ro; thus,  $h\bar{o}ng-j\bar{o}\bar{i}-ro$ , hring;  $f\bar{e}-no-ro$ , do not go. The first of two connected imperatives may be replaced by a participle ending in  $in-l\bar{a}$ , thus, choin-l\bar{a}  $f\bar{e}$ -ro, carrying go, take away.

The Negative particles are māk and noni; thus, kei kā-fē-tā-māk, I I-went-not, kei kā-fē-no-ning. I will not go.

The vocabulary agrees with the other old Kuki languages.

#### HALLAM.

Hallam is spoken in Hill Tipperah and Sylhet. In Sylhet 1,600 individuals were returned as speaking Kuki. A few words which have been translated in different parts of the district seem to show that three dialects, Thado, Hallam, and Langrong, have been brought together under this denomination. We may, therefore, provisionally put down 533 as belonging to Hallam. To these must be added about 8,000 individuals who were returned as speaking lipura. Most of these latter are immigrants from Hill Tipperah and speak Hallam. Their language is mixed up with Aryan words to a greater extent than is the case with the Hallam of Hill Tipperah. We thus arrive at the following total for Hallam:—

Hill Tipperah		•		•	•	•		•	•	•	•		18,000
Syiher .	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	8,53 <b>3</b>
										To	TAL	•	26,533

I am indebted to Mr. A. Porteous, I.C.S., Deputy Commissioner of Sylhet, for two specimens and a list of standard words and phrases in this language. They have been prepared by Babu Padmanāth Bhaṭṭāchāryya with the aid of an educated Hallām. A translation of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and a list of words and phrases in Hallām have also been received from Hill Tipperah. The two versions of the parable differ in so many points that I have thought it best to print both. The specimen received from Hill Tipperah is, however, carelessly done, and must, accordingly, be used with caution. The list of standard words and phrases printed on pp. 292 and ff. is that received from Sylhet. Where the Hill Tipperah list differs, and where the Sylhet list is wanting, the words of the former are given within parentheses.

The name Hallam may be connected with Mr. Damant's Khelma, which tribe he says lives in North Cachar. The short vocabulary which he publishes agrees with Hallam. The same is the case with the vocabulary of Sakājaib or Shekasip which Mr. Soppitt has published. Sakājaib has been returned as the language of 315 individuals in North Cachar. By adding these 315 speakers of Sakājaib to the estimates given above we arrive at a total of 26,848 for Hallam.

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- Soppit, C. A.,—A short Account of the Kuki-Lushai Tribes on the North-East Frontier (Districts Cachar, Sylhet, Naga Hills, etc., and the North Cachar Hills) with An Outline Grammar of the Rangkhol-Lushui Language and A Comparison of Lushai with other Dialects. Shillong, 1887. Account of old Kuki tribes on p. 3; Vocabulary and Sentences, Sakājaib, etc., on pp. 79 and ff.

As far as can be seen from the scanty materials at my disposal, Khelma and Sakājaib are identical with Hallam. According to Mr. Soppitt the Sakājaibs are an off-shoot of the Rangkhöls, and their languages differ very little. In the few instances

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of difference which he gives, Sakājaib, as far as we can ascertain, agrees with Hallām. And still closer is the correspondence with the few words given by Damant. The word for 'earth' is a good example. This word is, according to Mr. Soppitt, ernēnglē in Rāngkhōl, ra-nēng in Bētē, and phil in Sakājaib. Phil is also given by Damant, and this word for earth occurs in the third specimen in the form pil. It is, of course, impossible to come to any certain conclusions from materials so insufficient as those at my disposal, but it seems, at least, very probable that Khelma and Sakājaib are nothing else but Hallām.

I am not aware of any other authority dealing with the dialect, and the following sketch of Hallam grammar is based on the specimens given below.

Pronunciation.—There is some inconsistency in the writing of several sounds. Thus, the suffix of the Imperative is, in all specimens, written both ra and ro. Often the Hill Tipperah specimen has a, where the Sylhet specimen has o; thus, kam and kom, to; am and om, to be, and so forth. Instead of o we sometimes find ci or cy in the Sylhet specimens. And in one case the same word is written in all three ways; thus, thá, tho, and thoi, to arise. The sound which is thus written is probably the sound of a in the English word 'all'. The word thai, to be able, to be allowed, is also written thei; the verb sēi, to go, occurs in the forms sēi, sē, sai. The sound is perhaps that in the English word 'day'. U and i are interchanged in maung or maing, not. The sound which is meant is probably ü. Sometimes we find two vowels contracted into one; thus, pan for pā-in. The form seng in seng-kā-tī, I will go, as against seyeng-kā-tī, must perhaps be accounted for in the same manner. The y in seveng is probably euphonic as is certainly the w in bondo-w-ā, in the fields. The Sylhet specimens generally use y as the last component of diphthongs; thus, nay, son. The Hill Tipperah specimen writes ei, the Sylhet texts ei, etc. Some consonants seem to be silent or very faintly sounded. Thus, the Imperatives of sāk, to eat; nēk, to eat; pēk, to give; lāk, to take, are written sā-ro; nē-ro; pē-ro; lā-ro. The imperative of hong, to come, is hong-ro; and hō-ro. On the other hand, an initial consonant is sometimes doubled after a vocalic prefix; thus, appa-rang, or a-parang, his father to; assa, or a-sa, good, and so forth. The consonant j occurs in several words, but seems sometimes to be interchangeable with z, and even with ch. The suffix of past tenses is thus written jei, zei, and chei. A t occurs in a few words, especially in the specimen from Hill Tipperah. Thus, jdf to wish. This word is also written jat in the same specimen, and the Sylhet texts always have jot. The f is, therefore, perhaps a quasi-learned writing for t.

Articles.—There are no articles. The numeral khāt, one, is used as an indefinite article, while definiteness may be expressed by demonstrative pronouns and relative clauses. Thus, kēl ā-chal khāt, a he goat; ki-mā sāphal, this saddle; ā hāng-tik-in, he came-time-at, at the time when he came; reng nāy hā, king's son the.

Nouns.—Gender is only distinguished in the case of animate beings. In the case of human beings different words may be used for the two genders. Thus, pā, father; nū, mother: pā-rul, brother; sār-nū, sister: rū-tār, husband; dong-mā, wife: pā-sāl, man; nū-pāng, woman. But generally gender is distinguished by means of suffixes. The male suffixes which occur are pā and pā-sāl, the female ones are nū and nū-pāng. Thus, nāi, younger brother or sister; nāi-pā, brother; nāi-nū, sister:

nai-pa-sai, boy, son; nai-na-pang, girl, daughter. When no ambiguity arises, the gender is not indicated. Thus, nai or nai-pang, child or son. In the case of animals the suffixes are a-chal, male, and a-na-pang, female. The Hill Tipperah list has pai instead of a-na-pang as a female suffix. Thus, sa-kor a-chal, a horse; sa-kor a-na-pang (or pai), a mare.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. The suffix  $ng\bar{a}i$  or  $ng\bar{a}i$ - $h\bar{a}$  is used when it is necessary to mark the plural. Thus,  $p\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{a}i$ , or  $p\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{a}i$ - $h\bar{a}$ , fathers. In the Hill Tipperah specimen we twice find the form  $\bar{e}$ - $ng\bar{a}i$ ; thus,  $s\bar{u}ak$ - $k\bar{a}r$ - $\bar{e}$ - $ng\bar{a}i$ , servants. In  $\bar{a}m\bar{a}$   $s\bar{u}ak$ - $\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{a}i$   $k\bar{a}m$ - $\bar{a}$ , his servants to, the plural suffix is apparently added to the suffix  $\bar{a}$ . In  $k\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{a}i$  in- $\bar{a}$   $\bar{i}$ - $t\bar{u}k$ - $m\bar{a}$   $ch\bar{a}kar$ , my father's house-in how-many servants, the plural suffix is added to the genitive instead of the governing noun. In  $t\bar{u}$ - $t\bar{e}$ -in  $\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$ - $r\bar{a}ng$ - $h\bar{a}$   $p\bar{e}$ - $m\bar{a}k$ - $ng\bar{a}i$ , anyone him-to gave-not, the plural suffix is added to the verb, instead of the subject. In a similar way we find  $h\bar{a}$ -pen- $\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}k$ - $ng\bar{a}i$ , more-not-they, no persons else. In hi- $m\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{a}$ -hi, all these things,  $ng\bar{a}$  is substituted for  $ng\bar{a}i$ , and the suffix is written  $nag\bar{a}i$  in  $k\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}l$ - $nag\bar{a}i$ - $bil\bar{a}$ , my-friends with.

Case.—The Nominative does not take any suffix. Thus, nā rā-ming ī-mā? thy name what? The suffix in denoting the agent may be added to the subject of a transitive verb. Thus, pā-sāl khāt-in nāy in-ni-kā ā nei, man one sons two he had. But in is often omitted; thus, reng sã-nũ ā-mã-hā ā dân, the king's daughter him she kept. And in the Hill Tipperah list we even find this suffix added to the subject of an intransitive verb; thus, kei-nin kan kāl, we go. This is, however, certainly a blunder. The Accusative is usually formed without any suffix. But sometimes the postposition  $r\bar{a}ng$  is added. Thus, ā-mā-rāng-hā bondo-ā ā tīr, him fields-to he sent. The suffix le is used in forming a kind of Instrumental. Thus, sa-vay-le von in-bit-rang, to fill his stomach with husks; tui-le, with water; rui-le with ropes. The Dative is formed in the same way as the accusative. The suffix of the Ablative is tata; thus, pa in-khat tata, from a father. The Genitive may be expressed by putting the stem, without any suffix, before the governing noun. Thus, nāi chẳng, the son's word; sākor ngoi sā-phal, horse white-of saddle. But the governed noun may also be repeated by means of a pronominal prefix. Thus, kotoāl ā nāy, the Kotwal his son. Compare Pronouns, below. This form of the genitive may also be used before postpositions. Thus, kumārī ā-kom, the princess her-to. The suffixes of the Locative are a and in; thus, in-a, in the house; tik-in, at the time. The suffix in also denotes the agent. See above. Other relations are expressed by means of postpositions. Such are: bilā, with; ding-in, for — sake; i-sunin, against; kál-ā and kaum-ā, near; kám or kom, to; lei-le, with; mā-ton-ā, before; neng-ā, to; nūk-ā, behind, after; rāng-in, for - sake; roal-in, together with; roy-kā, among; tēā, in, etc.

Adjectives.—Adjectives are placed after the noun they qualify, and suffixes and postpositions are usually added to them, and not to the qualified noun. Thus,  $p\bar{a}$ -sāl khāt āssā-kom, man one good-to. The particle of Comparison is  $n\bar{e}k$ -in or  $n\bar{e}k$ -ā, placed after the compared word. The adjective remains in the positive. Thus,  $\bar{a}$ -mā  $n\bar{e}k$ -in àssā, that than good;  $\bar{a}n$ -reng-in  $n\bar{e}k$ -ā ān-sang, all than high;  $\bar{a}n$ -reng-in  $n\bar{e}k$ -ā āssā rā-cd, all than good cloth, the best cloth. The last instance seems to show that the qualified noun follows the adjective when definiteness should be expressed. The corresponding passage in the Hill Tipperah specimen runs in-rāng mi nāk-in ā-sā pūan, quickly all than

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good cloth. Mi is doubtful, and we cught perhaps to correct to in-reng-in instead of in-rang-mi. The superlative may also be expressed by adding not or tak to the positive. Thus, assa not, best; a-nig d-chin-tak, his son the youngest.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. The suffix  $k\bar{u}$  may be added, apparently without altering the meaning. Thus, in-khūt and in-khūt-kū, one. In a similar way we also find  $p\bar{u}$  in-khūt-ā, a father, etc. The prefix in may be dropped; thus, khūt, one. It is probably a generic prefix; but I am not able to state any rule for its use. The place of the numerals is usually after, but occasionally also before, the noun they qualify.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

Singular.

kei-mā, kei, I.

kei-mā, kā, my.

kei-mā-tā, kā-tā, mine.

nang-mā, nang, thou.

nang-mā, nā, thy.

nang-mā-tā, nā-tā, thine.

ā-mā, ā-ni, ān, he, she, it.

ā-mā, ā-ni, ān, ā, his, her, its.

ā-mā, ā-tā, ā-ni-tā, ā-tā, his, hers,

kci-mā-ni, kei-ni, we.
kān, our.
kei-ni kān-tā, ours.
nang-mā-ni, nang-ni-ngāi, you.
nān, your.
nang-mā-ni-tā, nang-ni-tā, nān-tā,
yours.
ān-mā-ni, ān-ni-ngāi, they.
ān, their.
ān-mā-ni-tā, ān-ni-ngāi-ān-tā, ān-tā, theirs.

Plural.

The short forms  $k\bar{a}$ ,  $k\bar{a}n$ ;  $n\bar{a}$ ,  $n\bar{a}n$ ;  $\bar{a}$ ,  $\bar{a}n$ , are also used as pronominal prefixes with verbs; see below. They are in general use as possessive pronouns before nouns, and before postpositions. They may be preceded by the fuller forms; thus,  $kei-m\bar{a}$   $k\bar{a}$ , my, lit., I my; nang  $n\bar{a}$ , thy, etc. Compare Genitive, above. The ordinary case suffixes and postpositions may be added to the pronouns. Often also the demonstrative pronouns  $h\bar{a}$  and  $h\bar{a}$  are added to other pronouns, apparently without much altering the meaning. Thus,  $kei-m\bar{a}-h\bar{a}$  and  $kei-m\bar{a}-h\bar{a}$ , I. The demonstrative pronoun  $m\bar{a}$ , that, which is the last component in pronouns such as  $kei-m\bar{a}$ , I, is also used alone as a personal pronoun in the same meaning as  $\bar{a}-m\bar{a}$ , he. The personal pronoun of the third person, on the other hand, is also used as a demonstrative pronoun.

The following Demonstrative pronouns occur:—hā, hi, hi-mā, mā-hi, this; mā-hā, sa-mā, sā—sā, that; hi-mā-ngā-hi, these. Mā-kā-hi is translated 'this all.' The kā is possibly the same kā which may be added to numerals. See above. Hā, this, is occasionally written khā, after k; thus, tik-khān, time-this-at.

There is no Relative pronoun. Demonstrative pronouns, participles, and interrogative pronouns are used to express relativity. Thus, nã nãi mã-hi nũ-pāng-wirē-ē-ngãi rōal-in nang-mã nčinūn-kā sāk-jai-tā ā háng-tik-in mā-tik-khān, thy son this harlots with thy property ate-up he coming-time-at that-time-at; vák sāk-nā sāvāi, pigs eaten husks. the husks which the pigs ate; i-tūk-má nei-nũn ā keng hā-tūk-hā nā nei-pēk-rāng, how-much goods it encloses? so-much you give will, eto.

The following Interrogative pronouns occur:—tū or tū-mā, who? ī-mā, what? ī-tūk-mā, how much, how many? hā-ong-mā or ī-rāng-mā, why? Thus, tū-nāi mā, whose son? tū kom-ātā mā, whom from? nang-in i-mā thāng-in, you what do-will?

The numeral  $in\text{-}kh\bar{a}t$ , one, used as an Indefinite pronoun, means a 'certain' and  $kh\bar{a}t$ -lo, any-one. Other indefinite pronouns are formed from the same stems as the interrogative pronouns, by substituting  $t\bar{e}$  for the interrogative particle  $m\bar{a}$ . Thus,  $t\bar{u}$ - $t\bar{e}$  or  $t\bar{u}$ - $t\bar{e}$ - $kh\bar{a}m$ , anyone;  $\bar{i}$ - $t\bar{e}$ , anything. As indefinite pronouns we may also note  $\bar{a}$ -reng-in, all;  $j\bar{a}$ - $k\bar{a}$  and  $jes\bar{a}$ , whatever. Besides  $\bar{a}$ -reng-in we also find  $\bar{a}n$ -reng-in in  $\bar{a}n$ -reng-in  $n\bar{e}k$ - $\bar{a}$ - $\bar{a}ss\bar{a}$ , all than good. The two forms are perhaps distinguished as in Lushēi, where  $\bar{a}$ - $z\bar{a}$ -in, all, is the neuter form, while an- $z\bar{a}$ -in is used of human beings.

Verbs.—Verbs are conjugated in person and number by means of pronominal prefixes. These are as follows:  $-k\bar{a}$ , I,  $k\bar{a}n$ , we;  $n\bar{a}$ , thou,  $n\bar{a}n$ , you;  $\bar{a}$ , he, she, it,  $\bar{a}n$ , they. The personal pronouns in the fuller form may precede; thus, kei-mā kā om, or kā om, I am. Compare the use of the same prefixes as possessive pronouns, above. The pronominal prefixes are sometimes dropped, thus often in the imperative mood, but also where there seems to be no reason for omitting them. The prefix  $\bar{a}$  is sometimes used in the same way as in Rangkhol; thus, nang-in a-tha, thou didst. Regarding the position of these prefixes in the future tense, see below. In a few places they have a slightly different form. Thus, in the translation of the Parable received from Sylhet we find khei el-maing, I transgressed not. Note the aspirated form khei. In the plural an  $\bar{a}$  is sometimes added to the prefixes; thus, kei-ni kān-ā ni, we were. The Hill Tipperah list also records the prefixes kāin, nāin, and ān-in in the plural; thus, ān-mā-ni ān-in sē-tā, they went. The interrogative pronoun i-tūk-mā, how many, seems to be combined with the singular prefix. Thus, i-tūk-má nāi ā om; how many sons are there? But kā pā-ngāi in-ā ī-tūk-má chākar sāk-nei-nūn ān mān, my father's house-in how-many servants food they get? In this case the plural seem to be due to the use of the plural suffix ngāi.

The root alone, without any suffix, is freely used to denote present and past times. Thus,  $kei\ k\bar{a}\ om$ , I am;  $\bar{a}\ t\bar{i}$ , he said;  $kei\ k\bar{a}\ jem$ , I have, or had, beaten. In one place  $k\bar{a}$ , this, is added; thus,  $\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{e}$ - $h\bar{a}$ , he went.

A Present Definite and Imperfect seems to be formed by prefixing  $l\bar{a}$  and suffixing  $b\bar{a}ng$ ; thus, kei  $k\bar{a}$   $l\bar{a}$ -jem-b $\bar{a}ng$ , I am, or was, beating. Another form, with a suffix en seems to occur in  $\bar{a}n\bar{a}$  chong-en, there were talking.

The suffix of Past tenses is  $t\bar{a}$ . Thus,  $\bar{a}$   $p\bar{a}$   $k\bar{a}m$   $\bar{a}$   $t\bar{i}$ - $t\bar{a}$ , his father to he said. The most common way to form the past tenses, however, is to add the word  $j\bar{e}i$ , also written zei, chei, and  $j\bar{e}$ . Thus, kei  $k\bar{a}$   $s\bar{e}$ - $j\bar{e}i$ , I went. This  $j\bar{e}i$  is identical with the verb jai, Rangkhūl  $j\bar{o}i$ , to finish, which is used in a similar way. In the Hill Tipperah list we find a past tense formed by adding the suffix  $r\bar{a}ng$ ; thus, kei-mān  $k\bar{a}$  jem-rāng, I struck. But this is probably a mistake,  $r\bar{a}ng$  being one of the suffixes used in forming the future. See below.

The usual suffix of the Future is  $t\bar{\imath}$ . The pronominal prefixes are inserted between the root and the suffix. This form is therefore a compound verb, the last part perhaps being the verb  $t\bar{\imath}$ , to say. Thus,  $in\text{-}thai\text{-}k\bar{a}\text{-}t\bar{\imath}$ , arise I vill;  $reye\text{-}p\bar{a}k\text{-}\bar{a}\text{-}t\bar{\imath}$ , know-all-hewill. The principal verb often takes the termination n or ng; thus,  $t\bar{\imath}ng\text{-}k\bar{a}\text{-}t\bar{\imath}$ , say-I-will;  $se\text{-}yen\text{-}k\bar{a}\text{-}t\bar{\imath}$ , I will go. We may compare the Khongzāi imperative in in, and the infinitive of purpose which that language forms by combining the imperative with the participle of  $t\bar{\imath}$ , to say; thus,  $so\bar{\imath}$  na-ching-in  $ka\text{-}t\bar{\imath}$ - $t\bar{\imath}$ , pigs tend, having said, in order to tend pigs. The first part of this periphrastic future is therefore probably an imperative or a verbal noun. Other suffixes used in forming the future are diny and  $r\bar{\imath}ng$ , both

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also employed as postpositions with the meaning 'to, for the sake of.' Thus, kei-nin kān jem-ding, we shall strike; nā nei-pēk-rāng, thou wilt give. The last form seems to be used as a mild form of the imperative. Compare also infinitive, below. In nang-in ī-mā thángin, thou what do-wilt? the future tháng-in seems to be formed with the suffix in. The corresponding form in the first person is tháng-kā-tī, I shall do.

The suffix of the Imperative is ro or rá, plural roi. In the specimen received from Hill Tipperah rá is also used in the plural. Thus, pē-rá, give; en-roi, see you. In the first person plural the suffix rei seems to be used; thus thá-sē-rei, arise go let us. The ei in rei seems to mean 'together, mutually.' Thus, ei-chong, conversation (chong, reply); bu-ei-nek-ei-sāk-ā in-nūi-in-dāi-ei-ti-ui, food-together-eating-together-eating glad-merry-together-let-us-be. This last form, ending in ei-ti-ui, seems to be another way of expressing the imperative of the first person plural, apparently derived from the future. Compare the periphrastic future.

The suffixes of the Infinitive are  $n\bar{a}$  and  $r\bar{a}ng$ . Both may be combined; thus,  $n\bar{a}$ - $r\bar{a}ng$ . The suffix  $n\bar{a}$  seems to form the true infinitive or verbal noun; thus,  $s\bar{a}k$ - $n\bar{a}$ , to eat, food. The suffix  $r\bar{a}ng$ , or  $r\bar{a}ng$ -in is probably the suffix of the infinitive of purpose; thus,  $\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$ - $r\bar{a}ng$ -in  $b\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{e}k$ - $r\bar{a}ng$  mi phun-koi  $\bar{a}$  thá, therefore food-eating-for men invitation he made. The pronominal prefixes may be added before this infinitive; thus, kei kā jem-rāng-in  $\bar{a}$  om, I my beating-for it is, I should beat. This combination of the infinitive in  $r\bar{a}ng$  with the verb om, to be, or similar verbs, seems to be frequent. Thus, kei  $n\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}y$   $n\bar{a}$  nei-ti-rāng bisār hāpen ni-māing, me your son you calling-for fit more is-not; kā vān  $\bar{a}$ n-chām-in  $\bar{a}$ -thī-rāng  $\bar{a}$ -ni-jē, my stomach hunger-in dying-for it-has-become, it is certain that I shall die from hunger. In this manner it is also possible to account for the words jesa  $\bar{a}$ -thá-rāng  $n\bar{a}$ -ni-tī, whatever doing-for you-to-be-say, whatever you say is to be done. The root alone, without any suffix, may also be used as a verbal noun. Thus, in-nui-in-dāy, to be merry.

Participles.—The root tenses, where no suffix is added, and the verbal noun may be considered as adverbial or relative participles when they qualify a following noun. Thus, ā hang-tik-in, he coming-time-at. Another Adverbial participle is formed by adding the suffix in, probably identical with the locative suffix. Thus, sak-in, eating. Conjunctive participles are formed by adding the suffixes la, a, and le. There are only two instances of a participle ending in la, and both are connected with an imperative. In the first, where the imperative is of the second person singular, an i is inserted before  $l\bar{a}$ ; in the second instance the imperative is in the second person plural, and ung is inserted. I and ung are probably pronominal infixes denoting the person which the participle applies to. Thus, sēm-i-lā nā-pē-rā, dividing give; ra-vā kong-choy-lilip-ung-lā hang-mān-silroi, cloth here-bringing-immediately-you put-on-let. The suffix ā is probably identical with the locative suffix. It may be added to all tenses. Thus, lak-vēi-ā ā ám-ā, faraway he being; ā thī-jēi-ā ā dām-jēi, he died-having he alive came; kei-hi in-thoi-kā-tīā kā-pā kom seyeng-kā-tī, I arise-will-and my father to go-I-will. The suffix le, perhaps identical with the postposition le, with, is used in a similar way. Thus, nang na thi-le kei seyeng-kā-tī, you you dying I go-I-will; pil kāng vor-kā-tī-le, earthen clods throw-I-will-and.

There is no Passive voice. 'I am beaten' is expressed by 'he beats me'; thus, kei än ä jem, me he he beats; kei na-jem-ä-tī, me beat he will; än mäng-jēi-ā ā mū-jēi, he lost-being he was-found-again.

Compound verbs are formed by means of prefixes and by adding other words to modify the meaning. Several prefixes are in use. Háng or hong denotes motion towards the speaker. As a verb hong or háng means to come. Thus, hong-choy, to bring here. The prefix  $k\bar{a}$  seems to have an inchoative sense; thus,  $k\bar{a}$ -riet, he began to bear. Probably also  $k\bar{a}$ -rie $\bar{a}$ -ia $\bar{a}$  (they) began to make merry. The prefix  $l\bar{a}$  is used in the present definite; see above. It also occurs in  $l\bar{a}$ -si $\bar{e}$ -ty $\bar{a}$ -r $\bar{o}$ , keep (me), and seems to convey the sense of continuity. The prefix  $m\bar{a}n$  (meaning 'to get') is used to form causatives, thus, riet, to hear,  $m\bar{a}n$ -riet, to inform; choy, to take,  $m\bar{a}n$ -choy, to give.  $V\bar{a}$  seems to denote motion towards; thus,  $\bar{a}$  v $\bar{a}$ -kol- $\bar{a}$ , he went and embraced;  $\bar{a}$  v $\bar{a}$ -t $\bar{i}$ , he went and said.

The verbs  $p\bar{e}k$  to give and pui, probably corresponding to Lushëi pui to help, to assist, are added to a verb in order to form a kind of causatives. Thus, nei, to have;  $ne\bar{i}$ ,  $p\bar{e}k$ , to give;  $\bar{a}n$  riet-pui, he revealed himself, from riet, hear, know. Desideratives may be formed by adding  $j\bar{a}t$  or jot, wish; thus,  $l\bar{u}t$ - $j\bar{a}t$ - $m\bar{a}k$ , to enter wished not. The verb  $th\bar{e}i$  means 'to be able,' 'to be allowed.' Thus,  $k\bar{e}i$   $k\bar{a}$  om- $th\bar{e}i$ , I may be. Sometimes it is difficult to see the special meaning conveyed by the compound. Thus,  $k\bar{a}l$ , to go; choy, to take, to bring;  $k\bar{a}l$ -choy, to walk;  $k\bar{a}l$ - $k\bar{a}$ -choy, I have walked. The first part of a compound generally takes no suffix, and must probably be considered as a verbal noun. Other words added to form compounds are  $d\bar{e}n$ , to be about; jai, to complete; ok, exceedingly, much;  $p\bar{a}k$ , all; rek, again; sir, again, etc.

The Negative particles are māk, māūng, or māing. Thus, pē-māk, gave not; ját-māūng, wishing not, against; rē-māing, knows not. Another negative lai seems to occur in ám-sā-lai-sāk-sā-lai, being-good-not-eating-good-not, in evil ways.

The Interrogative particle is ma. See Interrogative pronouns, above.

I have mentioned above that several words have been borrowed from Aryan languages. Such are bisār, proper, fit; chākar, servant; dese, country; gāddā, ass; jodi, if; kharach, spend; kumārī, princess; māyā, compassion; rākhāl, shepherd; ruppāi, silver, etc. All these occur in the texts received from Sylhet, while the Hill Tipperah specimen seems to be relatively free from this admixture.

[No. 16.]

## TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

## KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

### HALLAM.

### SPECIMEN I.

(STATE, HILL TIPPERAH.)

In-khāt-dak-ā nāi-pasāl in-ni-kā ā-nēi. Mi-läi-täk nāi-pāng pā-kâm he-had. Them-among-from younger-son father-to One-man 2012 two 'Kā-pā, nēi-nūn-nēi jā-kā kei mū-dar-a sēm-i-la na-pē-ra, ā-ril. Nãi he-said, 'My-father, property whatever I get-shall dividing thou-give.' Son's ā-riēt-ā ā-sēm-ā pēk-jēi. A-sin-sik-in nük-ä nāi-pāng chang nā-sāl word he-hearing he-dividing gave. Short-time after 20% male Mā-hān néi-nún-kä ā-sai-pāk khuā ā-lāk-nā ā-sēi-iēi. âm-sā-lai-sāk-sā-lai property he-took-all village far-to he-west. There in-evil-ways Nēi-nūn-kā pāi-jai-nūk-ā khuā ā-pāi-jēi. ลิท bū-ngēi-ā  $m\bar{a}$ he-squandered. Goods spent-all-after that village-in food-hunger-in he Mā lāi hān mā ā-mā rām-mūēl-ā in-khāt-kā in.ā in-want-fell. That time that-in he that country-in one-person's house-in 8a ВÂ ā-sēi-iēi. mi ān lai-ā vàk hâl-nā-rāng tīr-tā. Nūk-ā That man that his fields-in he-went. pigs grazing-for sent. Afterwards vák sak-na sa-vai sak-in ván kháp-nā lung ā-am. Chūn tū-tē-khâm husks eating belly to-fill wishing he-was. pigs eaten But anyone-even nē-māk. Mång-nük-in ā-tī. "Kā-pā süak-kar-ë-ngāi āvā-tām, Coming-to-senses-again he-said, 'My-father's servants they-many-are. eāk-nā nēik-in ā-tām kā-van-an-chām-in ā-mū. ā-thī-rāng than food more is-got, my-stomach-hunger-in die-to it-is-indeed: in-thai-kā-tī kā-pā-kâm sēn-kā-tī, mā-kām tīng-kā-tī, "Kā-pā. kei-mā arise-I-will my-father-to go-I-will, him-to say-I-will, " My-father, I nā-kam-rēng mārsiā jāt-māūng käser kā-thō-jēi, kei-mā ā-tūn-chu nā-nāi heaven against thee-to sin I-committed. I thy-som nē-tī-ā mū-thāi-māk, kei-mā nang-mā sūak-kar āng-in lā-siē-tyā-rō."' Nūk-ā thou-calling keep." Afterwards see-can-not. thy *servant* like me ā-thā-in ā-ni kAm ā-sai-jēi. pā Chun läk-vēi-ā ā-am-ā ā-pān he-arising his But distance-at he-being his-father father to he-went. phām-jēi-ā ā-mū-jēi, ā-tān ā-bing-ā ā-sēi ā-knā ā-bbing ã-tūm. he-saw, pitied-having he-ran he-went his-neck-on he-embracing his-neck he-kissed. A-nāi a-ppa-rang ā-tī, Kā-pā. kei-mā mārsiā j**át-**mäūng His-son this his-father-to he-said. My-father, 1 keaven against

nā-kam-rēng a-sēr kā thō-jēi, kei-mā a-tūn-chu na-nai nē-tī-a mā-thāi-māk, thy-son thou-calling see-may-not.' sin I committed, I nowmi Chun a-ma suak-a-ngai kam-a a-tī, 'In-rang nēk-in ā-sā pūan servants to he-said, 'Quickly all(?) than But his goodcloth ā-mān sil-rā, ā-mā kūt-ā kūt-sā-bi lē hang-châ-in phēē-ā iūtā his hand-on hand-ring here-bringing him put-on, andfoot-on shoes nā-mān-kūl-râ, kān nēk-ā kā-rāi-āsān; hā-lāi-rēng-hān kei-mā hi-lê we eating merry-make; this-reason-this-for cause-to-put-on, my this ā-dām-jēi; ān māng-jēi-ā, ā-thī-jēi-ā, ā-mū-jēi.' Nük-ā my-son he-died-having, he-alive-became; he lost-having-been, he-found-was.' Afterwards kāmāl-ā kā-rāi-ā-sān. friends-with merry-made.

Hā-nūk ā-nāi ū-liēn lai-ā ā-âm. A-hâng-in in kâmā hâng-in And his-son elder field-in he-was. He-coming house near coming lām-nā khång-chūk-nā kā-riēt. Μā tik hān kā-sūak khāt-ā ā-kai-ā dancing drum-beating heard. That time that-in servant one he-calling 'Mā-kā-hi ī-ma?' A-mā ā-nēng-ā tī-tā, ā-rkēl. 'Nā-nāi-pā . hâng-jēi he-asked, 'This-all what?' He him-to said, 'Thy-younger-brother came, sāk-nā-rāng ā-būm-jēi. hā lāi-rēng ā-mā ā-dām-in ā-mū-jēi.' thy-father eating-for he-prepared, this reason himalivehe-found. Chān ā-mā ā-tāk-si sūng-ā lūt-jât-māk. Nūk-ā ā-pā ā-pūā But ke. he-got-angry inside to-enter-wished-not. Then his-father outside hàng-in ā-mā-lē ā-mān-chu-jēi. Chūn ā-châng ān khir ā-pā kâm ā-tī-tā, coming him-with he-consoled. But he-answered he back his-father to he-said, 'En-rå, küm hā-tē-nā kei-mā nang-mā būl tīr-ā nā-chang tik-tik-khâm Lo, years these-many  $\boldsymbol{I}$ thy service doing thy-word time-time-even se-lå-mäk. ā-ni-khâm-in nang-mā-khâm tik-tik-khâm-in kei-mā-rāng-in transgressed-not, that-even-in thou-even time-time-even-at me-for khāt-kâm pē-māk, kā-kā-māl-pā-lē kā-rai-āsān. kēl-tē Chūn nā-nāi goat-young one-even gavest-not, my-friends-with merry-make. But mā-hi nū-pāng-ui-rê-ēngāi roal-in nang-mā nēi-nūn-kā sāk-jai-tā, ā-hâng-tik-in this harlots joining thy property ate-all, he-coming-time-at mā-tik-khān nang-mā ā-mā ding-in sāk-nā-rāng ā-būm-jēi.' Chūn ā-mā that-time-that-at thou preparedst.' But his sake-for eating-for he ān-ni-kām ā-ril-jēi, 'Kā-nāi, nang-mā kei-mā bilā nin-tin-ā âm, kei-mā him-near he-said, ' My-80n. thou me with always art.my ndi-nan jā-kā ā-rēng-in nā-tā. Chūn kā-rāi-āsān-nā in-dai-nā dān property whatever allthine. But merry-making joyful-being proper à-chang-jei, ha-lai-rèng nang-ma hi nā-nāi-pā ā-thi-jēi-ā, it-became, this-reason thy-younger-brother thy this he-died-having, ā-dām-sir-jēi; ān māng-jēi-ā, mū-sir-jēi.' he alive egain-was; he lost-having-been, found-again-was.

[No. 17.]

### TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

#### HALLAM.

# SPECIMEN IL

(SYLHET.)

### (A. Porteous, Esq., I.C.S., 1900.)

Pā-sāl khāt-in nāy in-ni-kā ā-nei. Nāy-pāng-pu-hā ā-pā-rāng āng-hin he-had. Man tuoo Son-younger-that his-father-to thus one sons hisār-in kā-bātā ā-tī. 'Kā-pā, ā-chuk-dor kei nā-nē-rō. property-in it-falls-as give.' ke-said. 'My-father, my-share me ā-mā-in ā-ni-zā ā-nei-nūn ān-ni-ngāi-royhā ā-sēm-ā Hā-tūk-reng-bān That-time-that-at he his-own his-property them-two-between he-dividing āsot-ngoi-le nāy-pāng-pu-hā ā-reng-in ā-nei-nūn ā-choy-ā Hā-nūk-chu ā-pēk. short-after son-younger-that all his-property he-taking And he-gave. ā-sĕ. Hā-nūk-chu ā-mā-hān badmāsi ā-tho-wā ā-lāk rām-möl-ā licentiousness And he he-doing he-went. country-to far Hā-nūk-chu ā-reng-in kharach ā-chāng-luk-ā ā-var-pāk. ā-nei-nūn aliit-being-entirely And spent he-spent-away. his-belongings rām-mol-hān ā-chālāk-in von-chām änāchul. Hā-mūk-chu ลิ-mลิ ā-sē-lē Then scarcity was. that country-in highly it-went-having in-khāt ā-mā-hā ā-mā rām-möl-ā antak-zei. Hā-nūk-chu ā-sāk-rāng ล-พล he Then that country-in one difficult was. his eating-for rākhāl-in ä-mä-räng-hä vok há-nűk-chu ā-mā-pā-in ā-vā-om : kom that-man him pigs tending and with he-went-stayed: isāk sā-vāy-le Hā-nūk-chn ā-mā-tāk-ā vok bondo-ā ā-tīr. ă-ni-zā pige' food husks-with that-place-at And fields-in he-sent. his-own tū-tē-in ā-mā-rāng-hā imotile-chu ā-chālāk-in ā-iot. in-hit-rang TOD anybody him-to he wished. hut hiahly fill-to bellu 'Kā-pā-ngāi ā-sing-le ā-mā-hān ă-tī. in-ā A-nük-le ne-māk-ngūi. he-said. 'Mu-father's house-in Afterwards he-awakening he gare-not. imotile-chu kei-mā-hi ān-mān, sāk-nei-nun ā-tām-pā-in ī-tūk-mā chākar 7 but food-things. they-get, to-excess servants how-many in-thoi-kā-tī-ā kā-pā-kom kā-thī. Kei-hi in-chăm-in hi-mā-hin von my-father-to I-die. I arise-I-will-and belly hunger-with here "Kā-pā, kei-hi ra-vān seyeng-kā-tī hā-nūk-chu ā-mā-rāng tīng-kā-tī. " My-father, Ι heaven say-I-will, and him-to go-I-will nā-nei-ti-rāng nā-nāv Kei hā-nūk-chu nā-mā-ton-à ká-thå. pāp i-sun-in thy-calling-for Me thy-son I-did. thee-before sin and spainst

nā-dân-ro." A-nük-le nā-chākar-āng-in kei-mā-hi hāpen ni-maing; bisar keep."; But thy-servant-like me is-not: fit more vā-thâ, ā-mū-ā māyā ā-mā-rāng-hā ā-lāk-pā ā-om-ka-kār-in ā pā-in compassion made. himhe-seeing he-was-when hisfather Hā-nūk-chu ā-bieng ā-tūm. ā-vā-kol-ā ā-ring-ā ã-tān-ā hā-nūk-chu his-neck he-kissed. he-running his-neck-on he-embracing And and hā-nūk-chu kei-hi ra-vān i-sun-in 'Kā-pā, ā-tī. ā-nāy-in ā-mā-rāng-hā ' My-father, Ι heaven against and he-said, him-to his-son bisār hāpen nā-nei-tī-rāng nā-nāv hā-nūk-chu pāp kā-thâ, nā-mā-ton-ā thy-calling-for fitmore and thy-son I-did. thee-before sin 'An-reng-in ā-tī. chā-kar-ngāi-rāng-hā Ā-nūk-chu ā-pā-in ni-māing.' · All he-said, servants-to But his-father is-not. hang-mān-sil-roi, ā-kūt-ā hong-choy-lilip-ung-lā ra-vå něk-ā āssā his-hand-on here-bringing-immediately-you cause-to-dress, clothes aoodjotā mān-bun-roi, hā-nūk-chu bū-ei-nēk-ei-sāk-ā hā-nūk-chu ā-kē-ā kūt-sābi and food-eating his-foot-on shoe and put-on, hand-ring ā-tūn-chu ā-thī-ā ā-sē-hā. hi-mā kā-nāy in-nui-in-dāy-ei-tī-ui. hā-ong-manā merry-glad-let-us-be, why-not (because) this my-son he-dying he-went, now Ā-nūk-le māng-piel-hā. ā-tūn-chu ān-mān-rēk-zei. ān ā-dām-rek-zei : Then found-again-has-been. he-alive-again-was; he lost-was. now ān-ni-ngāi-hā in-nui-in-dāv ān-phut. merry-glad-to-be they-began.

Ä-mā-lāi-tāk-hān ā-mā ā-nāy ülien-pā bondo-wā ā-om. A-nūk-le ā-mā-hā That-time-that-at his-son elder field-in he-was. Then he his ā-hong-ā-hong-ā in-kal-ā ā-riet. ā-lām-lā-tha-ā-ra-sā ā-hong-dēn-le he-coming-he-coming house-near he-to-come-about-being dancing-singing-of-sound he-heard. ī-mā? 'Hi-mā-ngā-hi A-mā-reng-hān in-khāt-ā chākar ā-rā-kel. ā-koi-ā what? ' This-all servant ke-calling he-enquired, That-time-at one hā-nūk-chu ā-mān-dik. 'Nā-nāy-pā a-hong, nā-pā Å-mā-hān and thy-father he-informed, 'Thy-younger-brother he-came, He bū-nēk-rāng mi ā-mā-rāng-in a-hoi-riem-in a-man-jei, ā-mā-rēng-hā soholesome-state-in he-recovered, this-sake-for food-eat-to people seye-rang Āmā-sik-hān ā-mā-hā ā-tāk-ā-mān-si-ā sung-ā ā-tha. phun-koi invitation he-made. This-on inside go-to he he-angry-getting peyenā ā-hong-ā ā-mà theyem. Ä-nük-chu ā-pā jot-māk; ā-mā-reng-hān his-father outside he-coming him coaxed. But wished-not: this-at kun-hin hi-tūk ā-mā ā-chong-ā ā-tī. En-ra kei-mā a-pa-rang years-these-in he he-replying his-father-to he-said, 'Lo, I SO-MILINE kā-obang, vei-khāt-lo nā-chang khei-el-māing. nang-in hăn-lo pā-chākar I-am, time-any thy-word I-disobeyed-not, thou yet kāmāl nagāi-hilā in-nu-in-dāy-nā-rāng vei-khāt-lo in-khāt kel-te nā-pē-māk-chei merrinent-for thou-gavest-not, time-any one kid

imotile-chu hi-mā nā-nāv nā-nei-nūn nati ā-choi-ā ā-vū-sāk ă-vă-păi. but this thy-son thy-property harlots he-taking he-enjoyed he-wasted, ā-mā ā-hong ā-tung-le nang-in ā-mā-rāng-in bū-nēk-rāng mi phun-koi he he-came he-arriving thou his-suke-for food-eat-to people invitation ā-thà.' Ā-mā-sik-hān ā-pā-in ā-mā-rāng-hā ā-tī, 'Kā-nāy, kūm-pā-lēen-tong madest. That-on his-father him-to he-said, 'My-son, year-all-through hā-nūk-chu kā-nei-nun-kā nā-tā korong, ā-mük-chu kei-ni kā-hilā nā-om. me-with thine (?),thou-art. and my-property but 100 in-ni-in-dāy-rāng-in ā-om, hā-ong-manā, hi-mā kān-rāy-āsān-ā nā-nāy-pā merriment-for it-is, schy-not? this thy-younger-brother we-joyous-becoming ā-thī-ā ā-sē-hā. ā-tūn-chu ā-dām-rek-jei: ān mäng-piel-hä, ā-tūn-chu he-revived-again; lost-was. he he-dvina he-went, 11010 11010 an-man-rek-jei.' found-again-kas-been.

[No. 18.]

### TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP

#### HALLAM.

## SPECIMEN III.

(SYLHET.)

(A. Porteous, Esq., I.C.S., 1900.)

In-khāt reng-in ā-mā ā-nāy ā-chin-tāk-rāng ā-tī, 'Kei kā-thī-tik king One his his-80n youngest-to he-said, ·I I-dying-time thang-in?' ī-må Reng nang-in nāy-in ā-tī, 'Nang nā-thī-le kei do-wilt? what King's thou 80n he-said. 'Thou thou-dying I in-khāt in-ā\* seyeng-kā-tī, hā-nūk-chu tīng-kā-tī reng āng-hin: "Kei one king's house-to go-I-will, and say-I-will thus: "I i-te re-maing, imotile-chu ā-må jesa ā-thâ-rāng nā-ni-tī ā-mā-hā idiot-am anything know-not, whatever but do-to thou-sauest that thâng-kā-tī."' Reng ā-thī-le ā-mā-in āng-hān ā-thā. **A-mā-tāk-**ā reng do-I-shall." King he-dying he thushe-did. That-place-at kina's ā-mā-hā dā-bā beng-rang-in Hā-mā ā-dân. reng-sā-nū tobacco dauahter him prepare-to she-kept. That king's-daughter ā-om, hā-nūk-chu anikhu-injomā ānā-chong-en. ā-nāy lei-le kotoāl kotical his-son with she-was. and day-every they-talked. Kotwal ā-nāy-in ā-tī, 'Hā-mā mi hi-le kei-ni ā-reng-in ei-chong reye-pak-a-ti.' his-son he-said. 'This man this our conversation allknow-all-he-will. ā-tī, 'ā-mā Reng-sā-nū ā-mā-keng ī-te re-mak. Ā-mā-nūk-le rincess she-said, 'he idiot anything understands-not.' This-after ān-ringāi-hā ā-lāk-pā rām-mōl-ā ā-sē-rāng ānā-chong-māi. Ā-rīet-ā reng country-to going-for they-talking-were. He-knowing king's distant nāv-in kotoāl-ā-kom ä-män-riot. 'Nang nā-nāy ā-vien iān ār-khōn-ā kotwal-to he-communicated, 'Thy thy-son to-day night cock-crow-at reng-sā-nū lei-le sceng-ān-tī.' Kotoāl ā-rīet-ā ā-mā ā-nāy-hā ā-sur-tit-ā with go-they-will.' Kotwal he-knowing mincess his his-son-that hc-scizina Reng sie. nāy-in kotoāl-ā-nāy-ā-sā-kor-hā ā-choi-ā kumāri-ā-kom King's kept. kotwal-his-son-his-pony-that he-taking 80% princess-to 'Tha-sō-roi.' ā-**s**ē-ū ā-vā-tī. Ānā-sō-ā ülāk desc ānā-tung-nūk-le he-going he-mid, 'Go-let-us.' They-going distant country they-arrived-having ă-riet. Hi-mā-hi kotoāl-ā-nāy ni-māk.' Ā-mā-hān reng năy-in princess she-kness, 'This kotsail-his-son is-not.' Then king's kumari-a-kom an riot-mai. Imotile-chu ā-mā-lài-hān ān-ni-ngāi princess-to be revealed-himself. But that-time-that-at they

ān-kūt-ā sum-paisa ล์-สาให้-วดิกษา alek-te-lo a-nak. A-13-03.1 reng 40-1 money their-hand-in enting-for anything warnet. But princess in-khāt-ā rāng-kāchāk vā-tok ũ neî. reng noy-ba 117-5 a- or-mar gold one duck she had, king's son-that she sending #ell-to ā-mān-choi. Hā-nūk-chu mi-in ā-en-rang in-ti-le renz náv ū-11. she-gave. Andpeople secing-for they-snying king's \$072 he-sicil. 'Rang-kachak māi-rāng-ā-chung-ā tui-le en-roi." Hā-nāk-chu hi-ma ' Gold plate-on water-with see. And that rām-mol-ā reng penā rāng-kāchāk m'hi-rāng ā-nie Later ā-māk-ngai. country-in king excepted gold plate. there-was more there-was-none. Hā-nük-chu reng vā-tok ā-en-ā ā-mā ā-man å-rå-kel. Rerg nāy-in And king duckhe-secing its-price he-enquired. King s its 81/18 tī. 'Kei-mā hi-mā-tāk-ā-hin in-ding-kā-tī-ā pil käng kil-man-lik-in ·I he said. this-spot-in stand-I-will-and earthen clods aides-four-on vor-kā-tī-le ā-tun-dor hā-mā-tūk-hā in-khāt-ā pang nā-sin-ā. i-tük-mA throw-I-will-and it-goes-as-far so-far one fence thou-making, how-much ā-keng? nei-nün hā-tūk-hā nā-nei-pek-rāng.' A-mā-āng-hān ã-tì-le articles it-contains? so-much thou-give-wilt." This-like he-suid-having reng pang ā-sin. A-mā-hān nei-nun-le man-sip-mak-a a-the-in an-jik-a things-with filled-not-being himself ashamed-being king fence he-made. That nāv-hā reng ā-mā ā-rām ā-pēk-ā ā-mā reng-hā ā-rot-ā â-sē. son-this king's his his-land he-giving that king-that he-fleeing he-went. Hā-nūk-chu reng nāy-in kumari ā-vā-ro-ā ā-mā rām-hān reng And king's 204 princess he-fetching that land-that-in king ānā-chang-ā ānā-om. they-being they-lived.

### FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

#### THE STORY OF A PRINCE.

A king said to his youngest son, 'what will you do when I am dead?' The prince said, 'when you die, I shall go to a king's house and tell him that I am an idiot and understand nothing, but shall do whatever one tells me to do,' and he did so when the king was dead. The daughter of the king of that place employed him to prepare her tobacco. The king's daughter used to meet with the kotwal's son and talked with him every day. The kotwal's son said, 'this man will know what we talk about,' but the princess replied that the man was an idiot and understood nothing. Then they talked of going to a distant land. The king's son understood it and said to the kotwal, 'your son will go away with the princess this night, at day-break.' Having known this the kotwal seized his son and kept him back. The prince getting upon the pony of the kotwal's son went to the princess and said to her, 'let us go.' When they reached the distant country the princess learnt that this was not the kotwal's son. The prince then revealed himself to the princess. But they had no money in their hands for maintenance. The princess,

however, had a golden duck which she made over to the prince to sell; and if any one wanted to see it, the prince asked for a golden plate with water to put it upon. In that land none but the king had golden plate, and seeing the duck, the king enquired what its price was. The prince said, 'I shall stand here and throw clods of earth all round me, and you will fence the ground as far as the clods go, and fill the space with various articles.' Being told thus, the king made a fence which could not be filled with articles; and being ashamed he gave his kingdom to the prince and fled away.

The prince then brought in the princess and lived there as a king.

#### LANGRONG.

The Langrongs, according to Mr. Soppitt, are the Kukis inhabiting the Tipperah Hills, and are identical with the Rangkhöls. The specimens and the list of standard words and phrases which are given below have been forwarded as specimens in Kuki. Their language is so closely related to Rangkhol and Hallam that I do not hesitate to identify it with the Langrong mentioned by Mr. Soppitt. Langrong or Lengreng is also spoken by a few individuals in the Cachar Plains, to the south and east of the Sadr Sub-division. They have come down from the hills since the Census of 1891. The Deputy Commissioner gives 399 as the total for Ralte, Saimar and Lengreng, without saying how many speakers there are of each. It has proved impossible to get any specimens. Mr. Damant called the tribe Ranglong and found it in North Cachar. In Sylhet there are said to be 1,600 speakers of Kuki. No specimens have been received, but the numerals have been taken down in several parts of the district, and in two cases, they agree with the forms given in the Tipperah list, while two other lists apparently belong to Hallam and Thado respectively. We may provisionally put down 533 as the total for Langrong in Sylhet and 133 in the Cachar Plains. If we suppose that the 5,600 individuals who are returned as speaking Kuki in Hill Tipperah speak Langrong, the probable totals for this dialect would be :-

Hill Tipperah	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	5,600
Cachar Plains	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	133
Sylhet .		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	٠	533
								To	TAL	•	6,266

#### AUTHORITIES-

SHART, ROBERT B., Geographical and Statistical Report on the District of Tipperah. Calcutta, 1866. Tipperah (i.e., Langrong) vocabulary on p. 3.

CAMPERLL, SIR GRORGE,—Specimens of Languages of India, including those of the Aboriginal Tribes of Bongal, the Central Provinces and the Bastern Frontier. Calcutta, 1874. Kukes of Tipperah on pp. 204 and ff.: probably also the 'Kuki' specimens on pp. 220 and ff.

Screen, C. A.,—A Short Account of the Kuhi Lushai Tribes on the North-Bast Frontier (Districts Cachar, Sylhet, Nega Hills, etc., and the North Cachar Hills), with an Outline Grammar of the Rangkhol-Lushai Language and A Comparison of Lushai with other Dialects. Shillong, 1887.

Mention of Langrong on p. 3.

Two specimens and a list of standard words and phrases have been received from Hill Tipperah. The list seems to be corrupt. It is, however, quite independent of the specimens and has therefore been useful for checking the results derived from the specimens. The following remarks on Langrong, which are based on the materials just mentioned, are the first attempt to describe this language, and are given with every reserve.

Pronunciation.—The spelling in the list of words is very inconsistent. I have corrected it as far as possible, but in some cases it is almost impossible to form an

accurate opinion of the pronunciation. Thus, d and  $\bar{o}$ ; ai and  $\bar{e}$ , respectively, are used for the same sounds. For instance, rd and  $r\bar{o}$ , the suffix of the imperative; tlai and  $tl\bar{e}$ , to run; pai,  $p\bar{e}$ , and  $p\bar{e}k$ , to give. The i of the suffix in may apparently be dropped after a preceding vowel; thus,  $p\bar{a}$ -in and  $p\bar{a}n$ , by the father. The use of aspirated letters is rather inconsistent. Thus,  $kh\bar{a}t$  and  $k\bar{a}t$ , one;  $ph\bar{u}ng$  and  $p\bar{u}ng$ , stomach, etc. Ph seems usually to be pronounced f; thus,  $ph\bar{a}k$  or  $f\bar{a}k$ , eat;  $ph\bar{e}i$  or  $f\bar{e}i$ , foot. Dh and th are both written for d in the list, in the termination ding. I have always written d, as do the specimens. T and t occur in the same word; thus  $tl\bar{e}$  or tlai, to run. Consonants are occasionally silent; thus,  $ph\bar{a}k$  and  $ph\bar{a}$ , to eat. We once find  $r\bar{e}n$ - $k\bar{a}$  instead of  $r\bar{e}ng$ - $k\bar{a}$ , all, but the pronunciation is probably the same in both cases. A euphonic g is sometimes written; thus, g or g o

Articles.—The numeral khāt, one, is used as an indefinite article, and demonstrative pronouns or relative clauses supply the place of a definite article.

Nouns.—The word  $p\bar{a}$ , father, occurs twice in the form  $k\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$ ; thus,  $k\bar{e}$   $k\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$ , my father,  $\bar{a}$ -ni  $k\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$ , his father. But usually  $k\bar{e}$   $p\bar{a}$ ,  $\bar{a}$   $p\bar{a}$ .

Gender.—Gender is only apparent in the case of animate beings. Different words may be used for the two sexes. Thus  $p\bar{a}$ , father;  $n\bar{u}$ , mother:  $p\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{a}l$ , man;  $n\bar{u}$ - $p\bar{a}ng$ , woman. In other cases suffixes are used to denote the gender. Such are, in the case of human beings,  $p\bar{a}$ , male;  $n\bar{u}$ , female. In the case of animals the male suffix is chal, and the female  $p\bar{u}i$ . Thus,  $n\bar{a}i$ - $p\bar{a}$ , son;  $n\bar{a}i$ - $n\bar{u}$ , daughter:  $s\bar{a}$ -kor chal, horse;  $s\bar{a}$ -kor  $p\bar{u}i$ , mare.

Number.—The suffix of the plural is hei; thus, ten-hei, friends.

Case.—The Nominative, the Accusative, and the Dative do not take any suffix. The subject of a transitive verb is usually distinguished by the suffix in, denoting the agent. The verb may be a participle or an infinitive; thus  $v\tilde{a}k$ -in  $ph\tilde{a}k$ - $n\tilde{a}$   $k\tilde{a}k$ , the pigs-by caten husks. The Genitive is expressed by putting the stem, without any suffix, or repeated by means of a pronoun, before the governing noun; thus, nang-ma pa nai, thy father's sons; ma sa-ko a-ka m i-ja-ka-ma, this horse its years how-many? The suffix ta is sometimes added; thus, kai-ma pa-ta lo-ma na sela-hei, my father's hired servants.

The Locative is formed by means of the suffixes  $\bar{a}$  and in. In is also used to denote the agent (see above) and the instrument; thus,  $r\bar{u}$ -in, (bind) with ropes. Other postpositions used to denote the various relations of nouns are:  $l\bar{a}i$ - $\bar{a}$ , between; nai- $\bar{a}$ , under;  $m\bar{a}$ -teng, before;  $n\bar{e}ng$ , in, for;  $n\bar{e}ng$ - $\bar{a}$ , in, to, from;  $n\bar{u}ng$ - $\bar{a}$ , behind;  $p\bar{o}\bar{a}$ , out of;  $r\bar{o}al$ -in, gathering, with;  $r\bar{u}$ -ai, from;  $s\bar{u}ng$ - $a\bar{a}$ , in; tai- $a\bar{a}$ , in, etc.

Adjectives.—Adjectives usually follow the noun they qualify, and suffixes are then added to them and not to the qualified noun. Thus,  $m\bar{\imath}$  thā  $n\bar{e}ng-\bar{a}$ , man good to. The suffix of comparison is  $n\bar{e}k$ -in or ning-in. Thus,  $\bar{a}$  far- $n\bar{u}$   $n\bar{e}k$ -in  $\bar{a}n$ -sang, his sister than tall;  $r\bar{e}n$ - $k\bar{a}$  ning-in  $p\bar{o}an$  th $\bar{a}$ , all than cloth good.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. They follow the noun they qualify.  $P\bar{a}$  in  $p\bar{a}-k\bar{a}t$ , one, etc., is probably a generic particle. But I cannot find any rule for its use. Thus we find  $mi-r\bar{e}m$   $p\bar{a}\cdot k\bar{a}t$  and mi  $kh\bar{a}t-k\bar{a}$ , one man,  $K\bar{a}$  in  $kh\bar{a}t-k\bar{a}$ , etc., is perhaps identical with the  $k\bar{a}$  in words such as  $j\bar{a}\cdot k\bar{a}$ , whatever;  $r\bar{e}ng\cdot k\bar{a}$ , all;  $t\bar{a}i-k\bar{a}$ , short;  $l\bar{a}m-k\bar{a}$ , much;  $\bar{i}-k\bar{a}$ , any;  $\bar{a}ng-k\bar{a}$ , like, etc.

Pronouns.—The following are the Personal pronouns, to which the ordinary suffixes may be added:—

Singular.

kai-mā, I.

kai·mā, kē, my.

kai mā tā, mine.

nang-mā, thou.

nang-mā, nai, thy.

nang-mā-tā, thine.

 $\bar{a}$ -ni,  $\bar{a}n$ , he.

āni, ān, ā, his.

ā-ni-tā, his.

Planet.

kai-mā-ni. kai-ni. we.

kai-mā-ni-tā, kai-ni-tā, ours.

nang-mā-ni, you.

naug-mā-ni-tā, yours.

ān-mā-ni, they.

ān-mā-ni-tā, theirs.

To these forms must be added the pronominal prefixes used before verbs. In the singular they are identical with the short possessive forms,  $k\bar{e}$ , nai,  $\bar{a}$ . The plural forms are  $k\bar{a}in$ ,  $n\bar{a}in$ , and  $\bar{a}n$ -in or  $\bar{a}n$ , and these may probably also be used as possessive pronouns with nouns and postpositions.

The following Demonstrative pronouns occur:-

 $H\bar{a}$ , this; hi, this;  $m\bar{a}$ . that;  $s\acute{a}$ , that;  $m\bar{a}$ -hi, that, he.

Relative pronouns.—Participles and verbal nouns are used in relative clauses; thus,  $vak-in\ phak-na\ kak$ , pigs-by eaten husks;  $ma\ hang-tik-in$ , he coming-time-at.

Interrogative pronouns.—Tū-mā, who? ī-mā, what? ī-jā-kā-mā, how many? i-ding-mā, why? Thus, tū-nāi-mā, whose son? mā-hēi ī-mā, these what?

Indefinite pronouns.— Ikā, any; tū-khám, anyone. Khám in tū-khám scems to mean 'even'; thus, tik-tik-khám, time-time-even, once even.

Verbs.—Verbs may be conjugated in person and number by means of pronominal prefixes. These are as follows:  $k\bar{e}$  or kai, I;  $k\bar{a}in$ , we:  $n\bar{a}$  or nai, thou;  $n\bar{a}in$ , you:  $\bar{a}n$  or  $\bar{a}$ , he, she, it;  $\bar{a}n$  or  $\bar{a}n$ -in, they. The use of these prefixes is very inconsistent, and they are often dropped.

The root alone, without any suffix, is freely used to denote present and past times. Thus, kai-mā kāl, I go; ān-mā-ni lung-ṭlāi-tir, they merry-to-make-began; kai-mā sir, I have walked; ā-ni hál, he is-grazing.

The suffix of Past tenses is tā; thus, kai-mān kē hem-tā, I struck; ān pā-in ā-ni mū-tā, his father him saw.

The suffix of the Future is ding; thus, kai-mā thá-in kế pā nông-ā kāl-ding, I arising my father-to go-will.

The suffix of the *Imperative* is  $r\bar{o}$  or  $r\hat{a}$ ; thus,  $p\bar{e}$ - $r\bar{o}$ , give; choy- $r\hat{a}$ , bring, draw; bun-tir- $r\bar{o}$ , to-wear-cause you. A first person plural is formed by means of the suffix rang, probably a suffix of the future. Thus, kai-mā-ni phāk-in lung-ţlāi-rang, us eating merry-make-let. See also Infinitive, below.

The simplest form of the *Infinitive* or *Verbal Noun* seems to be the root alone. A common suffix is  $n\bar{a}$ ; thus,  $k\bar{a}l$ - $n\bar{a}$ , to go;  $ph\bar{a}k$ - $n\bar{a}$ , to eat, food. It will be observed that this form is constantly given in the list of words to translate the verbal roots. Thus, hong- $n\bar{a}$ , come; ngir- $n\bar{a}$ , stand, etc. Infinitives of purpose are formed with the suffixes ding and rang; thus, hal- $n\bar{a}$ -ding-in, grazing-for;  $ph\bar{u}ng$ - $kh\bar{a}f$ -ding ning- $t\bar{a}$ , belly-fill-for

wished; kai-mā ṭēn-hēi rōal-in lung-ṭlāi-rang, my friends with feasting-for. Compare also ā-ni-ding-in, his-sake-for.

Participles.—The root alone may be considered as a Relative participle in mā háng-tik-in, he coming-time-at. The same meaning has the verbal noun ending in nā; thus, vāk-in phāk-nā kāk, pigs-by eaten husks; mā jāl-ā ām-nā mi, that country-in residing man. The suffix i-lā is used to form a Conjunctive participle; thus, bāk-ilā pē-rō, dividing give. The locative suffixes ā and in form Conjunctive and Adverbial participles. Thus, in-ā nēngā ām-ā hai-tā, house near being he heard; kai-mā thā-in kāl-ding, I arising go-will; phāk-in lung-tlāi-rang, eating let-us-rejoice. The second specimen uses ē instead of in; thus, sōal-ē, being tired.

There is no Passive voice. The suffix in after the subject of a transitive verb denotes the active. But its use is somewhat inconsistent, and its absence does not, therefore, always show that the verb is in the passive voice. The context must be consulted. Thus, nāng-mā nāi-bung hi bai-tā nūng-ā mū-tā, thy brother this lost-was afterwards found-was.

Compound verbs.—No prefixes occur in the specimens. Causatives are formed by means of the verb tir; thus, kāl-tir, to cause to go, to send. Desideratives are formed by adding nām, to wish; thus, kāl-nām-māk, to-go-wished-not. Thēi means 'to be able' to be allowed.' Thus, kai om-thēi, I may be. Other words used as the last part of compound verbs are: ēm-ēm, exceedingly; jā, completely; khir, back, again; khul-khul, to be about, etc.

The Negative particle is  $m\bar{a}k$ ; thus,  $k\bar{a}l$ - $n\acute{a}m$ - $m\ddot{a}k$ , to-go-wished-not. Another negative, na, occurs twice after  $p\bar{e}$ , to give; thus,  $p\bar{e}$ -na, gave not. A third negative, lai, occurs in  $\bar{a}$ - $th\ddot{a}$ -lai, good-not, bad; ai-lai, obey-not; ai-lai- $\bar{a}$ , disobeying, against.

The Interrogative particle is má or mō; thus, tū-nēng-ā má, whom from? ī-hang-mo, why? because, etc. See also Interrogative pronouns, above.

[No. 19.]

# TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

## KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

#### LANGRONG.

(STATE, HILL TIPPERAH.)

Мā lājā pāi-pāng-in ā-ni kā-pā nengā Mirem pākāt-ā nāi nikā nēi. one-to sons two were-got. Them among younger his father near bāk-ilā pē-rō.' Mā lāiā ā-ti-tā, 'kē kā-pā, sūmpūn kai-mā mū-nā jākā said. 'my father, of-goods I getting all dividing give.' Them among sumpun bāk-ilā pē-tā. Taikā nungā nāipāng nain rēngkān gathering-together younger son all Short after dividing gave. tāmtāmkā kāl-tā. chūn mā-hin ā-ni sumpun jál-a-la-han goods in-plenty spending country-a-far-to went, and there his jār-jā-in mā jala-ban bū-ngēi-ēm-ēm-tā, Mā rēngkān ā-pāy-tā. spent-entirely-having that country-in famine-dire-arose, all he-squandered. He chun mā antākā tul. Mā mi khātkā nengā tik-ā mā mā jal-a âm-nā and he want-in fell. That time-at he that country-in resident person one våk hål-nä-dingin lai-ä käl-tir-tä. Nüngä mä våk-in mi āni kāl-tā: mā pigs grazing-for field-in Then he pig: went: that man his sent. phāk-nā kak phāk-in phung-khaf-ding ning-tā, chun tu-kham ān belly-fill-to desired, but any-one him-to gave-not. husks eating ti-tā, 'kai-mā pā-tā lõ munā Nūngā meng-in ān said. my father's salary receiving servants he Then coming-to-senses phāk-nā tērā mū-thēi-tā, chūn kai-mā mā-hin thi-khul-khul. ngēi-in tāmkā I here hunger-in dying-am. plenty eatable things get-could, and nēngā kāl-ding, mā nēngā hil-ding, "kē-pā, kē-pā Kai-mā thà-in rising my-father's near go-will, him near say-will, "my-father, I I kai-mā nāng-mā tēorāl ai-lai-ā chūn nāng-mā nēngā bānisāl kē tho-ta, I have-committed, I asn. your #0# 186GF heaven against and lõ \$ÃÎÂ khātkā mű-nā ti-thēi-māk; kai-man nang-ma tivā nāi salary receiving servant ORE your son saying say-may-not; ## B kār-ālā Chūn āngkā am-tir-ro."' Nüngā tha-in nėngā kāl-tā. ā-pā But at-distance be-let." Then rising his-father west. like near tle-in, kal-in an ngăi-in, ān pāin ā-ni mū-tā, chūn being-time-at his father him saw, and compassionate-being, running, going his kai-mā tēorāl ai-lai-ā Nain an ti-ta. 'kĕ-pā. kōa-in ā-dåp-tā. Son he said, 'my-father, I heaven against neck-on holding he-kissed. koi-mā pāng-mā chun năng-mã nëngā bănisāl kë tho-ta. son saying sin I have-committed. I your and ¥0u near 2 1 2

ti-théi-māk.' Chùn pâin ā-ni sēlà-hêi nengā ti-tā, 'rang-rang-in father his say-may-not.' But servants near said, 'quickly rēnkā-ningin pōan thā châ-in māhi sil-tir-rō; māhi kūt-ā kūt-būn, chūn all-than cloth good bringing him put-on; his hand-on ring, phēi-ā phēikok būn-tir-rol; chūn kai-mā-ni phāk-in lung-ţlāi-rang; hā-lāi-nēng put-on'; and we eating merriment-make-will: foot-on shoe kai-mā nāi hi thi-tā, nungā dām-tā : bai nûngā son this died, afterwards alive-came; having-been-lost after Nūngā ān-mā-ni lung-ţlāi-tir. mű-tä.' found-has-been.' Then they merry-making-began.

Chữn á-ni nãi ũ-liênā lãi-ā âmā. Mā hâng-in in-ā nēngā âm-ā And his son elder field-in was. He come-having house near being-on lāmuā chūn khâng-ri hai-tā. Mā tik-ā mā sēlā khātkā nēngā kai-ilā dencing and music-sound lheard. That time-at he servant one near called-having ân nënga dan-ta, 'ma hei ī-ma?' Ā-ni an nënga hil-ta, 'nang-ma naiasked, 'this all what?' He him near said, him near 'your brotherbung hång-ta, chun nang-ma pan phakna tamka dil-tä ; ī-hāng-mō younger come-has, and your father food great has-prepared; because mū-tā.' Chūn māhi når-tā, ā-ni māhi dām-in in-sungā kālhe him sound-health-in got-has.' But he angry-became, house-in-side to-gonam-māk; nungā an pa in-poa hang-in năi nēngā wished-not; then his father house-outside come-having son near answeredhil-ta. Chun an tang-khir-hil-ta an pā nēngā, 'ēn-rō, kūm khōa said. But he answering-back-said his father near, 'lo, year every kai-mān nāng-mā phāk-tir-tā, nāng-mā tang ī-kā tik-tik-khâm your order 1 you served, any ever

ai-lai-māk; chūn tik-tik-khâm kēl-tē khātkā-kâm pē-na, chūn kai-mā ṭēn-hēi transgressed-noi; still kid one-even gave-not, that-in I friends ever lung-ţlāi-rang; chūn nāng-mā nāi māhi roalin nāți rōalin nāng-mā with merriment-making-for; but your son this harlots with your sumpun phā-jā-ilā mā hang-tik-in mā-tik-ā nang-mā āni dingin phāknā goods eaten-up-having he came-when that-time-af you him for food Chun māhān an nengā hil-tā, 'kē-nāi, nang-mā nintinā dil-ta.' tamkā great prepared.' But him near said, 'my-son, he . you always nengā am-ta, chun kai-mā am jākā rengkān nang-mā-ta. Chun kai-mā near were, and my being whatever all me But yours. tlai-nā chūn in-dāi-nā dān ā-chāng-tā, hā-lāi-nēng nāng-mā nāi-bung merry and joyful proper it-has-become, for your brother-younger hi thi-tā nungā dām-tū; bai-tā, nŭngā this died afterwards stipe-came; was-lost, afterwards found-has-been.

[No. 20.]

# TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

LANGBONG.

(HILL THPERAH.)

## SPECIMEN II.

## A KUKI FOLK-SONG.

Lapcal thang roale Rēngā spreading-wings Dhanesh-bird being-together Alllũng lêng-ê. lüng-di sõalē Ā-lām-ē They-dance being-weary joy-with mind is-mad. thi-poan, Mōkāmā sāl-tē striped-cloth, Mõkāmā-in flag Bonga dapno soale. Flying mind is-tired. Lüng-di lüng lenge. With-joy mind is-mad.

# FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

We shall all being together dance like the Dhanësh bird spreading (as it were) our wings and become weary. Our mind is mad with joy. Like the flag over the Mokama (a sacred building of Muhammadans) our mind flutters and is mad with joy.

#### AIMOL.

Aimol is spoken by a small tribe in the hills round the valley of Manipur. There is also a small settlement at Aimol, a village in the southern part of the valley. There are stated to be only small remnants left of the tribe, and the total number of speakers is estimated to be between 500 and 1,000. The Aimols, who assert that they have come from the direction of Tipperah, are mentioned by Messrs. McCulloch and Damant. Compare the Authorities quoted under Kōm, Chiru, etc. But no authority gives a description of the tribe or an account of the language. The remarks on Aimol grammar which follow are, therefore, entirely based on the texts printed below. These comprise two specimens and a list of standard words and phrases, prepared by Babu Bisharup Singh in the Aimol village in the valley of Manipur. The second specimen, an Aimol folk-tale, gives a very good idea of the language. I have hyphened out the single words and altered the translation in several points. Aimol is apparently less influenced by Meithei than most other dialects of the Manipur State, and this influence is almost entirely confined to the vocabulary. In all essential points of grammar the dialect is closely related to Rāngkhōl and connected languages.

Pronunciation.—The marking of long vowels is not consistent and apparently not always correct. U is always marked as long, and o as short. In other cases we find the same vowel sometimes marked as long, and sometimes as short. Thus, ka and  $k\bar{a}$ , my; kārā and kāra, among; a-tār and a-tar, old; ngāi and ngai, many, used as a plural suffix; māi-kūng-am and ma-ton, before, etc. The vowels of prefixes are sometimes dropped. Thus, a-rmai, his tail, but ka-ra-mai, my tail; na-ming i-mo n-ti (i.e., na-ti), thy-name what thou-callest? Some vowels are interchangeable. Thus, the intensifying suffix ko is also written  $k\bar{u}$  and  $k\bar{e}$ ; the indefinite particle om also occurs as im. Ai and ē are interchanged; thus, a-laik-om and a-lēk-om, he was. Aū, āo, and ao seem all to denote the sound a. Compare having and hong, come; khaom and khavim, a certain fruit; chāck and chok, to buy. Concurring vowels are often contracted. Thus, a-mā-in and a-man, he; cheng-ka-ta, i.e., che-ing-ka-ta, going; a-ta, saying; from ti, to say, plus the suffix ā, etc. The form teng, in, which occurs beside tiyeng and tiyang, is probably of the same kind. The y in tiyeng is euphonic, while ya in tiyang is probably written for ē. The diphthongs āā and āo are usually written āwā and āwo. Thus, khūvā, village; pēwon, cloth. Y and w are also euphonic in words such as a-chē-yā, going; a-mū-wā, seeing. D is euphonic in an-d-rēng- $\bar{a}$ =an-rēng- $\bar{a}$ , all. W is probably written for  $\bar{u}$  in sweek, slave; necessary, wish, etc. W, v, and b are interchangeable, and probably all written for w; thus, won and bon, belly; ha-wa and ha-va, that. L and r interchange in lu-fai, rupee; ru-fai, silver. Final consonants are usually softened when a vowel is added. Thus, chak, eat; chag-a, eating; lut, enter, come; a-lud-a, coming. Final consonants are sometimes silent. Thus, mak and ma, not; alāk, far, but i-dor-mo la, how far? Final ng seems often to be very faintly sounded. Thus, kan-tho-in-ka-ta, for kan-tho-ing-ka-ta, arising. Win a-son-po-yoi, he divided, is probably only written for m, before p. Compare va-sem-ro, divide. Cham, word, command, seems to be identical with chaing, word. Both are probably written for chang. N is often doubled between vowels. Thus, inn-ā, for in-ā, house-in; ka-ēn-nā, for ka-ēn-ā, I examining, etc.

Prefixes and Suffixes.—Most of the prefixes and suffixes which occur in Aimol have a distinct meaning of their own and will be dealt with below. Only a few prefixes

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are used in a wider sense. Thus, a, in a-sā, good; a-ni-lām. dance; kan. in kan-kan-royā, together; ma, in ma-chial, salt; ma-lik, worthy; ma-lūm-pā, young; ra, in ra-bū, nest; ra-mai, tail; ra-naga, very, etc.

Articles.—There are no articles. The numeral khat or an-khat, one, is used as an indefinite article, and pronominal prefixes, demonstrative pronouns, and relative clauses are used in order to convey the idea of definiteness.

**Nouns.**—The prefixes a and ka, which often occur before nouns denoting relationship and parts of the body, are the possessive pronouns of the third and first persons. Thus,  $a-p\bar{a}$ , his-father;  $ka-char-n\bar{u}$ , my-sister;  $\bar{e}-k\bar{a}-n\bar{u}$ , i.e.,  $\bar{e}-ka-n\bar{u}$ , alas, lit. O my mother.

Gender is only apparent in the case of animate nouns. It is distinguished by means of suffixes, and, in the case of human beings, also by using different words. Thus, a-pā, father; a-nū, mother: pa-sal, man; nū-mai, woman: pa-sal nāi, man young, boy; nū-mai nāi, girl: a-nāi pa-sal nāi, his-son boy, son; a-nāi nū-mai nāi, daughter. Pasal is also used as a male suffix; thus, nāi pasal, child male, son. The usual suffixes are, in the case of human beings, pā and nū, and, in the case of animals, a-chal and chal, male, and a-pūi, female. Thus, swok-pā, a male slave; a-lom-nū, his-wife: sē-kor a-chal, horse; sē-kor a-pūi, mare: kēl chal, a he-goat; kēl a-pūi, a she-goat.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. When it is necessary to mark the plural some word conveying the idea of plurality is added; thus. swok ngāi, servant many, servants; a-tar-ngai, old creatures; sē-kor a-chal tam, horse male many, horses; lū-fāi a-tam, rupee many, these rupees.

Case.—The Nominative and the Accusative do not take any suffix. Ko is often added in order to emphasise the noun. Thus, sē-kor a-ngoi-pā yāfal-ko, horse white's saddle; a-mā man-ko, that-of the-price. The suffix in, by, by means of, denoting the agent, is usually added to the subject of a transitive verb. Thus, a-swok-pā-n-ko a-lai-sāng-ā, his-servant-male he answered; kai-kūong-in ka-ēl a-pēr, shrimp my-thigh it-bit. The Genitive is often expressed by simply putting the governed before the governing noun. Thus, ka-pā swok ngāi, my father's servants. The governed noun is often repeated by means of a possessive pronoun prefixed to the governing noun. Thus, fai-bāng a-ra-bū, ant its-nest, ants' nest; rūl a-rmai, snake its-tail, the snake's tail. The Vocative does not require any suffix, but an ē is sometimes prefixed; thus, ē-pā, O father. Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are ā, in, on, to, with; da and dā, in, on; in, of, by means of; kārā, among; māi-kūng-am and ma-ton, before; mū-mag-a, getting-not, without; nūk-tiēng and nūg-ā, back-at, behind; sūng-ā, in; tiēng, tēng, tiyang, in, at; yāng, on; yēng and yēng-ā, to, from, etc.

Adjectives.—Adjectives are usually preceded by the prefix a; thus, a-sā, good; a-sāng-a, high. A prefix ma occurs in ma-tām-pā, younger. The suffix pā in this and in other adjectives is a suffix of the relative participle. The usual verbal suffixes are added when the adjectives have the function of a verb; thus, a-sāng-yoi, he is tall. Some adjectives have, according to the list of words, two forms according to the number of the qualified noun. Thus, a-sānū-mai, a good woman; but a-sāi nū-mai ngāi, good woman. There are no instances in the specimens to show the application of this extraordinary rule. Adjectives usually follow, but occasionally also precede the noun they qualify. The particles of comparison are nēg-ā and kārā; thus, a-char-nū nēg-ā a-nāi-pang-pā a-sāng-yoi, his-sister than his-brother he-tall-is; an-d-rēng-ā kāra a-sāng-a, all

among tall, tallest. A kind of superlative is also effected by adding cak; thus, puwon a-sa-tak, cloth good-much, the best cloth.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. They follow the noun they qualify. An in the first three numerals is probably a generic prefix, but I fail to see the rule for its use. Thus, we find posal an-khat, and pasal khat, a man. There are no traces in the specimens of other generic prefixes. In a-mā man-ko lū-fāi an-ni makhāi man-kē, that-of the-price rupees two and-a-half, the last man-kē seems to be a repetition of the subject man, price, and is not a generic suffix.

Pronouns.—The following are the Personal pronouns:—Singular,—

kai, I. nang, thou. a-mā, he, she, it. ka, my. na, thy. a, his, her, its. kai-ka-ni, mine. nang-na-ni, thine. a-mā-tā, his, hers, its.

Plural,—

kai-ni, we, our. nang-ni, you, your. an-mā-ni, a-mā-ni, they, their.

A form nai, thou, seems to occur in kai yēng-a lal nai na-pēk-rang, me to property thou thou-give-wilt; and tū yēng-ā nai-chok-mo, whom from thou-boughtest? Nai in the first instance is perhaps identical with Chiru nai, property, and nai in nai-chok-mō seems to be a miswriting for na. A form na-tak, he, occurs in the list of words. The personal pronouns are inflected as nouns. Thus, kai ka-chaūng, I my-word, of me; nang na-sipā, thou thy-service, thy service; a-mā-ni chaūng, their word. Ni in kai-ka-ni, mine; nang-na-ni, thine, must be considered as the verb substantive. In nang-a-rang-kē, thine, an a is inserted between nang and the postposition rang, for. Words such as ko, kē, ki, etc., are added in order to emphasise the pronouns. Thus, kai-ko, I; nang-a-rang-kē, thine; a-mā-ki, he. They are all originally demonstrative pronouns.

Demonstrative pronouns.—Hi, this; ha and kha, that. Han-ko in pasal han-ko fai-loi-yā a-man-chē, man that field-to he-sent, seems to contain ha, the suffix of the agent, and the emphasising particle ko.

Relative pronouns.—There are no relative pronouns. A relative participle is formed by adding the suffix ā. Thus, lai-pāk kha-da a-om-ā pa-sal khat, country that-in being man one. The ordinary tenses of the verb can be used in the same way. Thus, wok i-chāk cha-wāi, pigs eaten husks; kai yēng-ā om lim, me to being all; kai yēng-ā lal nai na-pēk-rang na-pēk-ta-ro, me to property thou-give-wilt, thou give, give me the share which you intend to leave me. In the last instance the relative participle follows the qualified noun. Pā seems to form relative participles or nouns of agency. Thus, a-nāi ā-lien-pā, his son the-elder; hong-thai-pā kai ka-ni-yoi, a-clever-man I I-am.

Interrogative pronouns.—Ti-mo, who? i-mo, what? i-rai-hi-no, why? i-yat-mo, how much? how many? A-tak oko-mo, is translated 'where is the flesh?' in the second specimen. Oko-mo seems, therefore, to mean 'where?' An indefinite pronoun is effected by adding im to the pronoun is; thus, tin-im pē-makū, any one gave not.

Verbe.—Verbs are conjugated in person and number by means of pronominal prefixes. These are ba, I; kan, kani, we: na, thou; nam and nana, you: a, he, she, it; and and, they. The singular prefixes sometimes occur with a verb in the plural. In No. 239 on is used in the singular. And seems to be used in the same way in ana-ma-

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lūm, he caused to roll, etc. In i-mo ani-tho-so, what is being done? ani seems to be a demonstrative pronoun, and the literal translation is apparently 'what that-done?' The plural prefix is used when the subject comprises two words connected by means of lē, with. Thus, nang-ko kai-lē a-ni-tiu kan-om-ā, thou me-with always we-remain. The prefixes are sometimes omitted. In a-hoyān chāg-ā, they happily eating-are, the prefix an before chāg-ā seems to have been contracted with the ā of the preceding a-hoy-ā.

The root alone, without any suffix, is freely used to denote present and past times. Thus, kai ka-ni, I I-am; nāi pa-sal an-ni an-om, child male two they-were. A suffix ā, which generally forms adverbial clauses and conjunctive participles, is sometimes added, apparently without changing the meaning. Thus, a-ril-ā, he said; ā-ngāi-don-ā, he recollected. So and sē are apparently assertive suffixes in sentences such as i-mo ani-tho-so, what are they doing? nang-in kēl tē an-khat jag-om na-pē-mak-sē, thou goat young one even thou-gavest-not. The suffix lāi has a similar function; see Negative particle, below.

The suffix of the Past tenses is yoi as in Chiru. Compare Rāngkhōl jōi, to complete, to finish. Thus, a-sēn-pē-yoi, he divided-gave; ka-chē-yoi, I-have-walked; kai ka-vē-yoi, I I-had struck. It is also used to denote the present time when the action of the verb is considered as an established fact. Thus, ka-pā-ko in sin-ā a-om-yoi, my father house small-in he-lives. A-ni-yoi, it is, it was, is sometimes added to a verb in order to emphasise that the action really takes place. Thus, ani-loi kai tho a-ni-yoi, sin I did it-was, I sinned indeed. A kind of past tense is also effected by prefixing laik, lai, or lēk. Thus, a-laik-om and a-lēk-om, he was; a-lai-sang-ā, he answered. This form is also used as an imperfect; thus, kai ka-lai-vē, I was striking. A suffix pē is apparently added in forms such as a-yū-pē, he kissed; a-deng-pē, it fell; a-lūt-pē, he entered, etc. But these forms are really compound verbs, the latter part being a verb pē, probably identical with pē, to give. Compare a-pēr-a-pē, he bit, where the pronominal prefix is added to both verbs. Forms such as a-ma-lūm-rē, he-caused-to-roll, are perhaps due to the influence of Meithei.

A Present definite is formed by prefixing la, or by adding the verb om, to be, to remain. Thus, kai ka-la-vē, I am striking; sē-rāt sa-chik a-la-pē, cattle food he-is-giving; sē-kor a-chong-ā-om, horse he-riding-is.

The suffix of the Future is ing, probably a postposition meaning 'for,' 'in order to.' The pronominal prefixes are wanting before this form; thus, lai choi-noning, fine pay-not-will, I will not pay fine. The verb ti, probably meaning 'to say,' preceded by the pronominal prefixes, is usually added. Thus, va-ril-ing-ka-ti, going-saying-for-I-say, I will go and say; nang-in vēng-na-ti, thon wilt strike. Another suffix of the future is rang. Thus, nang-ni na-vē-rang, you will strike; na-pēk-rang, thou wilt give; ka-won mankhop-rang, my-belly (I) fill-will. The form chang-lang-rong, in na-scok khat changlang-rong, thy-servant one (I) be-will, seems to be connected with the imperative. I-sig-ā-mo-ka-tin-ko, because, perhaps contains a future ka-tin. The literal translation seems to be 'why? I will tell.'

The suffix of the Imperative is ro, and in the first person plural rai. Thus, pē-ro, give; va-choi-ro, bring; bēng-pē-ro, cause to put on; om-lang-rai, let us remain. Lang in om-lang-rai also occurs in na-mook khat chang-lang-rong, thy-servant one (1) be-will. To is prefixed to ro in na-pēk-ta-ro, give; bēng-ta-ro, put, etc.

The root alone, without any suffix, is used as an Infinitive or Verbal noun. Thus, kaini-ko a-kou-ā kani-om-hi a-ni-yoi, we happily our-remaining-this it-good-is. The past tense ending in yoi is used as a past verbal noun. Postpositions are freely added to these verbal nouns in order to form adverbial clauses. Thus, ni a-laik-a-lak om-ā, days few being-in, after a few days had passed; a-lung-a-thag-a, his-mind-its-angry-becoming-in. having got angry; a-lag-a a-om-lay-a, distance-at his-being-time-at, when he was far off: a-thi-nū, his-dying-after, after he had died; ka-chang-yoi-yā, my being-finishing-in, having been; a-ring-yoi-kē-a-nin-ko, his-revived-having-on-account of, because he came alive, etc. Compare Adverbial and Conjunctive participles. A suffix na seems to occur in a-hong-na-khan-a-ko, his-coming-time-at-just, as soon as he came. The suffix of the Infinitive of purpose is rang, the same postposition which is also used in order to form the future. Thus, kai-ko na-nāi chang-rang ka-ma-lik-ni-lāi-ma, I thy-son being-for I-worthy-am-not; thi-rang ka-tho-yoi, dying-for I-prepared, I am about to die; kan chāk-rang, our eating for, in order that we might eat. Compare nang-a-rang-kē, thee-for. thine. The purpose can also be expressed in other ways. Thus, 'wok sēl-ro' a-ta, 'pigs tend' saying, in order to tend pigs.

Participles.—The Relative participles have been mentioned with Relative pronouns. The noun of agency is, as stated in the same place, formed by the suffix  $p\bar{a}$ . A word  $k\bar{e}ng$  is added in  $y\bar{a}\bar{u}-s\bar{e}l-pa-k\bar{e}ng$ , a shepherd. Laū-chon-mi-kēng, a cultivator, contains the same word  $k\bar{e}ng$ , and is formed by prefixing the relative participle without any suffix to mi, a man. The suffix  $\bar{a}$ , mentioned with verbal nouns, forms Adverbial and Conjunctive participles. Thus,  $a-hoy-\bar{a}$  om-lang-rai, happily let-us-remain;  $a-ring-\bar{a}$   $a-k\bar{u}-v\bar{a}$   $a-y\bar{u}-p\bar{e}$ , his-neck-on he-falling he-kissed; chēng-ka-ta va-ril-ing-ka-ti, go-will-I-saying say-I-will, I will go and say. The suffix  $l\bar{a}$  forms a conjunctive participle which is substituted for the first of two co-ordinate imperatives. In is prefixed to this  $l\bar{a}$  if the imperative is of the first person plural, and  $\bar{u}n$  if it is of the second person plural. Thus  $a-hoy-\bar{a}$   $n\bar{e}k-in-l\bar{a}$   $a-hoy-\bar{a}$  om-lang-rai, merrily eating merrily let-us-remain;  $p\bar{u}won$  asātak va-choi- $\bar{u}n-l\bar{u}$  a-mā-hi man-kai-ro, cloth best bringing him cause-to-wear. In  $a-m\bar{a}-ha-ko$   $v\bar{e}-jag-in-l\bar{a}$   $r\bar{u}i-y\bar{a}$  khit-ro, him beaten-having ropes-with bind,  $in-l\bar{u}$  is the suffix in the second person singular.

There is no Passive voice. The suffix of the agent is usually added to the subject of an active transitive verb. When it is dropped the context shows how to translate. Thus a-sūong-yoi-mo, his-cooking? is he cooked? ka-xūong-yoi, my-cooking, I cooked. The first of these sentences must be translated as a passive, the second as an active. Kai-in ka-vūong-yoi, me-by my-cooking-took-place, would have removed all ambiguity. The list gives kai-in na-vē, I am beaten, but kai-in is probably wrong. Kai na-vē-rang a-ni-yoi, me thy-striking it-is, I shall be struck, is a correct form. It might also be expressed in the following way, nang-in kai na-vē-rang a-ni-yoi, thee-by me thou-strike-wilt it-is, I shall be struck indeed.

Compound verbs are freely formed in order to modify the meaning of the primary verb. Thus, a-hong-ring-ret, he-came-lived-again, he came alive again; a-dēng-khiyak-yoi, it fell-destroyed; a-sēn-pē-yoi, he divided-gave. The prefixes ma and man form causatives. Thus, an-ma-soi-yoi, they-let-him-go; a-man-chē, he-caused-to-go, he sent. En seems to have been prefixed to the in kan-the-in-ka-ta, probably for ka-en-the-ing-ka-ta, I-arising. It seems to mean 'up.' Hong, to come, is used as a prefix in order to denote

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motion towards the speaker; thus, hong-choi-ro, come-carry, bring. Fo or not probably means to go,' and denotes motion. Thus, ra-som-ro, go-and-cut; not-hon-roi-yoi, she went and complained. Itesi involves are normed by adding notion, to wish; thus, intensional time, the formed by reduplicating the root; thus, a-yong-yong-o, he-coming-coming, running. Other words added in order to form compounds are don, to begin; jag, well; kir, back; sa, entirely, etc.

The Negative particle is mak, ma or met. Thus, no-po-mak-re, thou-gavest-not; sa-mak, bad; kai niel-om-ma, I disobeyed-not. Lôi is often inserted before ma; thus, ka-ma-tik-ni-lāi-ma, I-worthy-am-not. It is probably a verb substantive. Another negative is noni, corresponding to Rangkhol noni; thus, lai choi-noning, fine (I) paynot-will.

The Interrogative particle is mo. It is generally a part of the interrogative pronoun, but is sometimes also added to the verb. Thus, na-nāg-ā pa-sal nāi tā-mo an-haūng-mo, thee-behind man young whose he-comes? It is added to the verb when there is no interrogative pronoun; thus, a-sīong-yoi-mo, has it been cooked? In disjunctive questions it is added to both members; thus, tāi lā-mo na-ngam tāi dāi-mo na-ngam, water hot thou-wishest, water cold thou-wishest? Doest thou prefer hot or cold water?

Order of Words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb. But there are many exceptions from the rule, especially in the list of words.

[No. 21.]

## TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

## KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

#### AIMOL.

## SPECIMEN I.

(STATE, MANIPUR.)

(Babu Bisharup Singh, 1899.)

Pasal khat nāi pasal an-ni an-om. A-nāi ma-tūm-pān ā-pā-yēng Man one-of child male two they-were. His-son younger his-father-to 'Ē-pā, kai yēng-a lal nai na-pēk-rang, na-pēk-ta-ro.' property thou(?) thou-give-wilt, thou-give.' His-father he-said, 'Father, me to a-lal ล-กลิเ an-ni-vā a-sen-pe-yoi. Ni a-laik-a-lak om-ā a-nāi his-sons two-for his-property he-divided-gave. Days being-in 80me his-80n a-lal ma-tum-pan lim a-chov-a mi-khūwā a-lāg-ā khad-a a-chē-yā all younger his-property he-carrying village far-to one-to lim a-man-mang-yoi. Aman a-lal lal lim man-mang-sū-wā wickedly his-property all he-wasted. He property all wasted-after mi-khūwā kha-da bū ra-naga a-lū-voi. A-mā-ko a-pong-voi. A-mān village that-in food very it-dear-became. He he-distressed-became. Ħе lai-pāk kha-da a-om-ā pasal khat-yeng a-lūd-a pasal han-ko, 'wok sēl-ro. country that-in residing man one-to his-going-in man that, 'pigs tend,' a-ta fāi-loy-ā a-man-chē. A-man-om wok i-chāk cha-wāi ngal-om saying fields-to he-sent. He-even pigseaten husks even chāg-ā, 'ka-won man-khop-rang,' tā, ha-vā-ngal-hā tūn-ūm pē-ma-kū. eating, 'my-belly fill-will, saying, nevertheless anyone gave-not. A-ching-na-khan-a-ko a-ngāi-donā, 'Ka-pā swok ngāi ngal-om He-wise-becoming he-to-consider-began, 'My-father's servants many even chāg-ā. kai-ko ka-bon-a-chām-a thi-rang ka-tho-yoi. Kai-in happily are-eating, I-but my-belly-its-hunger-with dying-for I-did. 7 kan-tho-in-ka-ta ka-pā yëng chëng-ka-ta va-ril-ing-ka-ti, " **E**-pā, Pa-thien I-arising my-father to "O-father, going say-will, God māi-kūng-am. ē-pā. na-māi-kūng-am. a-ni-loi kai-tho a-ni-yoi. Kai-ko before, O-father, thee-before, 8in I-did indeed. I na-nāi chang-rang ka-ma-tik-ni-lāi-ma. Na-swok së-lo kārā na-swok thy-son be-to 1-worthy-am-not. Thy-servants hired among thy-servant khat chang-lang-rong."' Hi a-ta a-man a-pā-yēng a-hong-yoi. one be-will." This he-saying he his-father-to he-came. A-lāg-ā a-om-lav-a a-pān a-mū-wā. a-lüng-a-si-yā a-näi-yēng his-being-time-at his-father Far-off he-seeing. kis-mind-it-moving his-son-to

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a-kū-wā. Ha-wā-han-ko a-nai-in a-ring-â a-yū-pē. a-rong-rong-a he-embricing his-neck-on he-kissed. Thereup in his-son he-running a-ril-ā. £-14. Pa-thien māi-kung-am, ē-19ā, na-māi-kung-am, his-father-to he-said, 'O-father, Gud O-father, thee-before, before, kai-tho a-mi-yoi. Kai-ko na-nai chang-rang ka-ma-tik-ni-lai-ma.' a-ni-loi I-:lid indeed. I thy-sonbe-to I-worthy-am-not. a-swok-ngāi a-ril-fi, Pāwon a-sā-tak Ha-wā-han-ko a-pān veng cloth Thereupon his-father his-servants to he-said. Lest kūt-sabit khat man-tieng-ro, va-choi-un-lā a-mā-hi man-kai-ro. a-kūt-da cause-to-wear, him his-hand-on bringing ring one put. a-kē-yā khonghūp beng-pē-ro. Bū a-hoy-ā nēk-in-lā a-hoy-ā om-lang-rai; shoe Food happily happily remain-let-us; his-foot-on put. eating i-sig-ā-mo-ka-tin-ko ka-nāi hi-ko a-thi-nù vai-khat a-hong-ring-ret; this he-died-having once-more he-came-ulive-again; mu-80n vai-khat ka-mū-ret.'  $\mathbf{Hi}$ a-tūn-ko an-mā-nin a-mang-nū an-ta he-lost-being once-more I-saw-again.' This saying theu now an-man-hoi-yoi. they-made-merry.

loi-läy-ä a-laik-om. A∙mān Ha-wā-takan-ko a-nāi ū-lie**n-**pā a-in That-time-at fields-in Пe his-80n eluer he-was. his-house a-hong-yong-tiyang khūwong ring ani-lām a-jēd-ā. A-man a-swok Hehis-coming-arriving-at drum sound dancing he-heard. his-serpant ani-tho-so? a-koy-ā, 'I-mo a-ta a-ding-kēl-ā. Ha-wā-han-ko khat he-calling, 'What is-being-done?' saying hc-asked. Thereupon one a-swok-pan-ko a-lai-sāng-ā, 'Na-nāi-pang-pā a-hong-kir-yoi, "nat-sat 'Thy-younger-brother he-came-returned, his-servant-male he-answered, " illness mū-mag-a a-hong kir-voi." a-ta na-pān a-hoy-ā bū a-laik-don-ā.' without he-came-returned." saying thy-father he-prepared.' merrily food ŭ-lien-pan a-lung-a-thag-a lūt-nwom-lāi-mā. A-nāi Ha-wā-na-khan-a-ko His-son the-elder getting-angry to-enter-wished-not. Therefore a-ba-sūwog-a a-vā-ma-thēm-yoi. A-mān a-pā-yēng a-sang-yoi, his-father he-coming-out he-entreated. Hehis-father-to he-answered, kūm 'En-ro, hi-bā i-vat-da ka-tho-wā vai-khat jag-om nang na-sipā thy Look. years these many-in thy-service I-doing time-one even na-cham kai niël-om-mā, hi-bā-dor-ā-ngal-hi ka-sap I thy-command disobeying-was-not. nevertheless my-friends kan-kan-roy-ā kan-chāk-rang nang-in ka-ya-lê kēl-tē an-khat my-companions-with together our-eating-for thou goat-young one na-pē-mak-sē. Na-lal jag-om lim a-pē-yā nū-mai yēng thou-gavest-not. even Thy-property all women to giving a-man-mang-sū-wā na-nāi hi a-hong-na-khan-a-ko nang-in bū na-laik-don.' wasting-all thy-son this he-came-when thou rice thou-preparedst.

Ha-wā-han-ko a-pān a-ril-ā, 'Ka-nāi, nang-ko kai-lē a-ni-tin Thereofter his-father he-said, ' My - son, thou me-with always kan-om-ā, kai-yēng-ā om lim nang-a-rang-kē. A-tūn-ko na-nāi-pang-pā we-remained, me-with being all thine-is. Now thy-younger-brother vai-khat ka-mū-yoi-kē-a-nin-ko a-ring-yoi-kē-a-nin-ko, a-thi-yā a-mang-rēt he-died-having he-came-alive-because, he-lost-being again I-found-because kai-ni-ko a-hoy-ā kani-om-hi a-ni-yoi.' happily it-is. to-remain tce

[No. 22.]

## TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

## KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

AIMOL.

## SPECIMEN II.

STATE MANIPUR.)

### (Babu Bisharup Singh, 1899.)

Chēm-chong-sai-pā Ton-ā an-ta pa-sal khat a-lek-om. Tũi-dung-ā chēm Formerly. Chem-chong-sai-pat man called one he-was. River-at dao Kai-kūwong-in u-töt. a-ël a-pēr-a-pē. A-lüng-a-thag-ä Shrimp he-sharpened. his-thigh it-bit. His-mind-it-angry-being Chēm-chong-sai-pā rūo-tūk khaūm a-yong-chul. Ār-chā a-ting a-dēng-pē, Chem-chong-sai-pa cut fruit-tree it-fell. Cock his-back it-fell, a-lung-a-thak, ha-wā-han-kē fāi-bāng a-ra-bŭ a-thāi. his-mind-it-angry-became, therefore ant its-nest he-broke. A-lüng-a-thak, rūl a-rmai a-bel-pe. Rul-in a-lung-a-thak-a Its-mind-it-angry-became, snake its-tail it-stung. Snake its-mind-it-angry-becoming sangal a-ēl a-chūk-pē. A-sangal-in a-lüng-a-thak-a mot-küng boar his-thigh it-bit. his-mind-it-angry-becoming plantain-root Boar a-fūr-ā. Bak a-lung-a-thak-a sāi-pūi a-küor-ā he-destroyed. Bat its-mind-it-angry-becoming elephant-female her-ear-in a-lūt-pē. Săi-pūi-in a-lung-a-thak-a süm-tüong a-ma-lüm-rē. it-entered. Elephant her-mind-it-angry-becoming mortar she-caused-to-roll. a-ma-lüm-in-kē tār-tē-pi in a-deng-khiyak-yoi. Tär-të-pi-in rolling-by widow it-destroyed. house Widow a-lung-a-thak wā-haŭ-roi-voi, 'Sūm-tūong, lai choi-ro.' Sum-tuong. her-mind-it-angry-became went-complained, 'Mortar, fine pay. Mortar. 'Lai choi-noning. sāi-pūi-in a-na-ma-lüm.' 'Sāi-pūi, lai choi-ro.' ' Fine pay-not-will, elephant she-caused-to-roll.' 'Elephant, fine pay. 'Choi-noning, ka-kūwor-ā bāk a-lüt. 'Bāk. lai choi-ro.' 'Choi-noning, ' Pay-not-will. 'Bat, fine my-ear-in bat it-entered.' pay. ' Pay-not-will, ka-kung sangal-pān a-na-für-pē.' Sangal, lai choi-ro.' 'Choi-noning, my-root boar he-destroyed.' fine Boar, pay.' 'Pay-not-will. rūl-in ka-ēl a-na-chūk-pē.' 'Rūl lai choi-ro.' 'Choi-noning, ka-ra-mai make my-thigh it-stung.' 'Snake fine pay. ' Pay-not-will, my-tail fāi-bāng-in 'Fāi-bāng an-bēl.' lai choi-ro.' 'Choi-noning, nang ār-chān ants they-stung. 'Ant ' Pay-not-will, thou fine cock pay.

choi-ro.' 'Choi-noning, a-thāi.' 'Ār-chā, lai ka-ting-yang a-ra-bū ' Cock, pay. 'Pay-not-will, he-broke.' fine my-back-on my-nest ka-lung-a-thak.' 'Choi-noning, 'Khaom, lai choi-ro.' khaom in a-deng-a my-mind-it-angry-got.' · 'Fruit fine pay. it-falling 'Pay-not-will, fruit Chēm-chong-sai-pān ka-kūng a-tūk.' 'Chēm-chong-sai-pā, nang lai choi-ro. Chēm-chong-sai-pā my-root 'Chēm-chong-sai-pā, thou he-cut.' fine pay.' 'Choi-noning, a-pēr.' 'Kai-kūong, kai-kuong-in ka-ēl lai choi-ro.' 'Pay-not-will, it-bit.' 'Shrimp, shrimp my-thigh fine pay.' 'Lai Sang-lai-ma. choi-ro.' vai-khat a-ding-kēl-yoi. Sang-lāi-ma. 'A-tūn-ko Answered-not. 'Fine pay, she-requested. Answered-not. · Now once-more kai-kūong, tūi lū-mo tūi dāi-mo na-ngam? na-ngam, ri-ro.' thou-preferrest? tell.' water coldshrimp, hot thou-preferrest, water 'Tūi dāi ka-ngam.' Tūi dāy-ā an-ma-soi-yoi. Kai-kūong, 'Hong-thai-pā 'Water cold I-prefer.' Water cold-in they let-go. Shrimp, 'Skilful-man 'Sāi-pūi kai ka-ni-voi.' Lai-pāk a-lung-a-thak-re-yoi. yong-koi-ro, tūi Ι I-am. People their-mind-it-angry-became. 'Elephant call. water man-dip-rai.' A-kang-yoi. Kai-kūong an-chūr-yoi, an-thak-yoi. cause-to-suck-let-us.' It-dry-became. they-caught, Shrimp they-killed. 'Ū-chok-pā mē-pū-chang-ro.' 'A-sūong-yoi-mo?' 'Ka-sūong yoi.' A-suong-yoi. Frog dress (-the-fish).' 'It-cooked-is?' He-cooked. ' I-cooked-have.' 'Va-sem-ro.' 'A-tak o-ho-mo?' Omag-a. U-chok-pā, 'A-tar-ngai, ma-chial 'Divide.' 'Flesh where-is?' 'Old-ones, Was-not. Frog,salt ka-ēnnā ka-chāk-yoi.' Lai-pāk an-lung-a-thak-yoi. An-reng-a I-examining I-eaten-have.' People their-mind-it-angry-became. Allan-sig-ā an-chē-yoi. Ha-wā-yāra ŭ-chok-pā-hi an-sik-pē-yā they-pinching they-departed. Therefore their-pinching-from frog a-ting-a-far-chūt a-om-voi. ita-back-wart it-was.

## FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

### How warts came on the toad's back.

Once upon a time there was a man called Chemchongsaipa. He was sharpening his axe by the river, when a shrimp nipped him on the leg. Chemchongsaipa became angry, and cut down a thain tree. The tree became angry, and dropped one of its fruits. The fruit fell on the back of a cock. The cock became angry, and scratched up an ants' nest. The ants became angry, and stung the tail of a snake. The snake became angry, and bit a boar on the leg. The boar became angry, and rooted up a plantain-tree. A bat (that lived in the root of the plantain-tree) became angry, and flew into

<sup>\*</sup> Its fruit is as big as a watermelon.

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an elephant's ear. The elephant became angry, and set a mortar rolling; and the mortar as it rolled knocked down a widow-woman's house. The widow-woman became angry and began to scold.

- 'Mortar,' said she, 'pay a fine.'
- 'I won't', said the mortar. 'The elephant set me rolling.'
- ' Elephant, pay a fine.'
- 'I won't. A bat got into my ear.'
- 'Bat, pay a fine.'
- 'I won't. A boar rooted up the plantain-root which was my home.'
- ' Boar, pay a fine.'
- 'I won't. A snake bit me on the leg.'
- 'Snake, pay a fine.'
- 'I won't. Ants stung my tail.'
- 'Ant, pay a fine.'
- 'I won't. A cock scratched up my nest.'
- 'Cock, pay a fine.'
- 'I won't. A khaām-fruit fell on my back and made me angry.'
- ' Khaum, pay a fine.'
- 'I won't. Chemchongsaipa cut me down.'
- 'Chemchongsaipa, pay a fine.'
- 'I won't. A shrimp nipped me on the leg.'
- 'Shrimp, pay a fine.'

But the shrimp remained silent.

Again she said, 'shrimp, pay a fine.'

But the shrimp remained silent. Said she:—'Would you rather (die in) hot or in cold water?'

'I would rather (die in) cold water.'

So they put him into cold water, and he (jeered at them and swam away), saying, "I am (too) clever (for the likes of you)."

Then they all became very angry, and called the elephant, who sucked up all the water till it was dry, and then they caught the shrimp and killed him. They gave him to a toad to cook. 'Is it cooked?' said they. 'It's ready,' said the toad. 'Then carve it for us.' (He gave them nothing but the broth.) 'Where is the flesh?' There was none. 'Old fellows, in testing the flavour, I accidentally swallowed the shrimp.'

So the people became angry, and everyone pinched him (on the back) and went his way. Thus, owing to this pinching, toads have had warts on their backs ever since.

#### CHIRU.

The Chirus are a small tribe in the Manipur State. They are estimated to number between 500 and 1,000 souls. Most of them live in the mountains to the west of the valley, but a few Chirus are also found as a migratory tribe in the valley. Major McCulloch thought them to form a connecting link between the Songboos and the southern tribes. Their language is most closely related to Hallām, Kōm, Rāngkhōl and Langrong.

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Damant, G. H.,—Notes on the Locality and Population of the Tribes dicelling between the Brahmaputra and Ningthi Rivers. Journal of the Boyal Asiatic Society, New Series, Vol. xii, 1880, pp. 228 and ff. Note on Chern on p. 238.

Two specimens and a list of standard words and phrases have been received from Manipur. They have all been prepared by Babu Bisharup Singh at Kangjup Khul. They are the only foundation for the remarks on Chiru grammar which follow:—

Pronunciation.—The marking of long vowels is not consistent. Thus, we find khā and kha, that; rang and rang, for; ama-ni and a-ma-ni, they. U is always marked as long. There are apparently two diphthongs ai, one with a long  $\bar{a}$ , and another with a short a. Thus,  $n\bar{a}i$ , child; nai, property. Both are sometimes interchangeable with  $\bar{e}$  and i. Thus, a-rai-yoi and a-re-yoi, he said; wak-ri-rang, I will go and say. O and  $\bar{u}$  seem to denote the same sound. Thus, khū and kho, village; rū and ro, the suffix of the imperative. O is also interchangeable with aū; thus, ra-chok and ra-chaūk, buy. vowels of prefixes are often changed so as to agree with the vowels of the following syllables. Thus, a-di, two;  $\bar{u}-r\bar{u}k$ ,  $\sin$ ;  $ka-s\bar{a}-p\bar{a}$ , my son;  $k\bar{u}-s\bar{u}-n\bar{u}$ , my daughter; marim, sound; milli, four; mū-lūng, mind; a-rai, he said; o-om, he was, etc. Euphonic w's and y's are generally inserted after an o and  $\bar{u}$ , or  $\bar{e}$  and i respectively. Thus, kho-wā, in the village; a-kē-yā, on his foot. Final consonants are sometimes silent. Thus, pēk and pē, give; wāk, wāt, and wa, come; nēk and ni, to eat, to swallow. Final r is often doubled; thus, thirr, iron; sa-korr, horse. In the same way we find l doubled between vowels; thus, mallai, tongue; āllā, far. This doubling is probably intended to denote the shortening of the preceding vowel. Hard and soft consonants are sometimes interchanged. Thus, a-jēm-da-nā, having struck;  $l\bar{u}k$ -ta-nā, having drawn. L and n seem to be interchangeable in some cases. Thus, a-ni-da-lā, having been; a-jēm-da-nā, having struck. In shë-tu-nga, having gone, ng is perhaps written for n. Jand y are apparently interchangeable. Thus, jong and young, a prefix denoting motion towards; o-oyêt, in plenty; o-ojed-a, happily, etc S and sh are written in the same words; thus, shak and sak, to cat.

We have no information with regard to accents and tones.

**Prefixes.**—Most of the prefixes used in Chiru are pronominal or verbal prefixes, and will be dealt with below.  $\Delta$  is generally the possessive pronoun of the third person, but it has also a wider use in the formation of nouns and adjectives. Thus, a-ni, sun; a- $p\bar{a}$ ,

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man, male being; a-kai, tiger; a-thā, good; a-jār, striped; āllā, far. Ka generally means 'my,' but it occurs without such a meaning in sāng-ka-hāk, ring; ka-pēk-lāi, he is giving. Ma is the stem of the demonstrative propoun, but is also used before nouns and adjectives; thus, ma-rim, sound; mā-lāng, mind; ma-tūmā, young. Compare also Compound Verbs. Ra seems to occur in karr-nam, my back; ri-ming, name. The use of such prefixes seems to be relatively restricted, in comparison with Lamgūng, Kōm, etc.

Articles.—The numeral *khat*, one, is used as an indefinite article, and definiteness is denoted by the use of relative clauses, pronominal prefixes, and demonstrative pronouns.

Nouns.—Gender is only apparent in the case of animate beings. It is often, in the case of human beings, distinguished by the use of different words. Thus,  $ka-p\bar{a}$ , my father;  $k\bar{u}-n\bar{u}$ , my mother;  $a-p\bar{a}$ , man;  $n\bar{u}-p\bar{u}ng$ , woman. The usual suffixes are  $p\bar{a}$  or  $ap\bar{a}$ , male; and  $n\bar{u}$ , female; thus,  $ka-n\bar{a}i-p\bar{a}ng-p\bar{a}$ , my younger brother;  $ka-sarr-n\bar{v}$ , my sister;  $ka-s\bar{a}-p\bar{a}$ , my son;  $k\bar{u}-s\bar{u}-n\bar{u}$ , my daughter. Pa and  $n\bar{u}-p\bar{a}ng$  are prefixed in  $pa-sa-n\bar{a}i$ , boy;  $n\bar{u}-p\bar{a}ng-sa-n\bar{a}i$ , girl. The gender of animals is distinguished by adding the suffixes  $ch\bar{a}$ , male, and  $a-n\bar{u}-p\bar{a}ng$ , female. Thus, sa-korr  $ch\bar{a}$ , horse; sa-korr  $u-n\bar{u}-p\bar{a}ng$ , mare.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. When it is necessary to mark the plural, some word meaning 'many,' 'multitude,' etc., such as hāi, rāk, ā-rop, a-tām-pūi, is added. Thus, a-soūk-hāi, slaves; a-pā a-tha-rūk, good men; kē ā-rop, goats; sa-korr chā a-tām-pūi, horse male many, horses.

Case.—The Nominative and the Accusative do not generally take any suffix. Words such as  $kh\bar{a}$ ,  $kh\bar{a}$ -lo,  $kh\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{u}$ ,  $l\bar{a}$ , and  $t\bar{u}$ , all probably demonstrative pronouns, may be added in order to emphasise. Thus, kūhā tūi khā lūk-ta-nā wāk-choi-rū, well-from water that drawing bring; kai-nā a-mā a-sha-pā khā-lo ra-mo-lē tām-pūi ka-jēm-yoi, I his his-son that stripes-with much I-struck; a-mā khā-tū anaktak jēm-da-nū rūi-rū-lē khop-ro, him that well beating ropes-with bind; kai-lā bū nēk-būi-yā a-thi-rang kā-ni-yoi, I food eating-not dying-for I-am, I am dying here with hunger; a-kai-tū kai-ni-nā ka-ma-tor-y oi the-tiger we we-defeated, etc. The suffix nā, denoting the agent, is usually added to the subject of a transitive verb; thus, a-pā-nā nai lim a-sēm-pē-yoi, his father property all hedivided-gave. The Genitive is generally expressed by putting the governed before the governing word, without any suffix. Thus, sa-korr hi-la kum, horse this year, the years of this horse; sa-korr a-ngoi sa-fārr, horse white's saddle; nang-pā in, thy-father's house. A possessive pronoun is sometimes prefixed to the governing word; thus, a-kai a-būn, thetiger its-skin. Other relations are expressed by means of postpositions. Such are:ā, in, to; dā, to; ding and a-ding, to; ding-ā and a-ding-ā, from; kā-rā, from; kong, and kung, in, among; khan, in; le, with; lond, on the top of; mai-kung-a, and mai-kungam, before; nūi-yā, under; nūk and nū-wā, behind; nā, from; rāng, for, etc.

Adjectives.—Adjectives are generally preceded by a prefix, usually a, but sometimes also others such as ma and pi; thus, a-thā, good; a-ngoi, white; ma-tūm-ā, young; pi-li-tē, small. In a-pā a-tha-pā khat, man good one, the suffix pā in a-tha-pā is probably a suffix of the relative participle. Adjectives follow the noun they qualify, and suffixes and postpositions are added to them, and not to the qualified noun. Thus, a-pā a-tha-rūk ding, man good-many to, to good men. In nū-pāng kāi a-tha-rūk, good women, there are two plural suffixes, one after the noun and one after the adjective. The particles of comparison are kūrā and nigā. Thus, a-dī kārā a-thā, two from good, better; wā-nūi-nigā arrahāng, all (?) than high, highest. Tak, much, most, may be added to the adjective in order to form

a kind of absolute superlative. Thus,  $pon \ a$ -tha-tak, cloth best, the best cloth. In  $am\bar{a}$  a  $sarr-n\bar{u}$  tha-t $\bar{u}$  a-n $\bar{a}$ i-p $\bar{a}$ ng-p $\bar{a}$ -n $\bar{a}$  a-sh $\bar{a}$ ng-d $\bar{e}$ t, his his-sister that his-brother taller, his brother is taller than his sister, the word  $d\bar{e}$ t is perhaps a verb meaning 'surpass.' The suffix of the agent in a-n $\bar{a}$ i-p $\bar{a}$ ng-p $\bar{a}$ -n $\bar{a}$  shows that this word is the subject.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. They follow the noun they qualify. There are no traces in the specimens of the use of generic prefixes or suffixes.

Pronouns.—The following are the Personal pronouns:—

Singular,—  $kai, I. \qquad nang, thou. \qquad a-m\bar{a}, he.$   $kai, ka, my. \qquad nang, na, thy. \qquad a-m\bar{a}, a, his.$ Plural,—  $kai-ni, we. \qquad nang-ni, you. \qquad a-ma-ni, they.$ 

The words  $kh\bar{a}$ ,  $l\bar{a}$ , and  $t\bar{u}$  may be added to the pronouns as to the nouns in order to emphasise. The genitive may be expressed by means of the short forms ka, na, and a, but also in the same way as with nouns. Thus, kai-ka-chong, of me, lit. I-my-word; nang chong, of thee, etc. The list of words gives kai- $k\bar{a}$ -ni and kai-ni, we, but only kai-ni occurs in the specimens. The short forms ka, na, and a, are apparently also used in the plural; thus, kai-ni ka-chong, we our-word, of us. Compare Pronominal prefixes with verbs below.

Demonstrative pronouns.—Hi, hi-hi, and hi-lā, this; khā, kha-nā, khā-to, ma-khā, and tū, that. In 'imo a-tho?' khātiyā arrdon, 'what is-being-done?' saying he asked, khātiyā must probably be corrected to khā ti-yā, that saying.

There is no Relative pronoun. The base alone is generally used as a relative participle; thus, ma-khā lai-pāk khan o-om mi khat, that country in being man one. Any other form of the verb can apparently be used in the same way, even the imperative; thus, ka-pā-nā kai-a-ding na-pē-rāng-rū nai ko-tūm-rang, my-father-by me-to thou-give-shalt property share, the share of the property which thou, my father, wilt give me. Sometimes the two clauses are put together without any connecting participle. Thus, nang nāi hi nang nai lim sūkangyor a-ding a-pēk-ā ma-māng-yoi, nang nāi hi a-wāt-lē-yā, thy son this thy property harlots to giving wasted, thy son this returned-when. In a-pā a-tha-pā khat, man good one, the form a-tha-pā is perhaps a relative participle. The suffix nā forms a relative participle in o-om-nā-om-nā sok-sok, being-being snail-snail, all the snails that were there.

Interrogative pronouns.—Tū-mo, who? i-mo, what? i-ranga-mo, why? i-yāt-mo, how many? i-chān-mo, how much? thus, nang ri-ming i-mo-ti, thy name what-called-is? nang nū-vā tū-nāi-mo-ni pa-sa-nāi ā-hong, thy back-at whose-son-being boy comes? whose boy comes behind you.

Indefinite pronouns.—Mi-khat-te, any one, lit. man-one-even.

Verbs.—Verbs are conjugated in person by means of pronominal prefixes. These are ka or kā, I, we; na or nang, thou, you; a, he, she, it, they. The vowel of the prefixes is often changed. Thus, we find ki-ra-chaūk, I bought; kā-mūk-yoi-yē-lā, we saw again; nē-ra-chok, thou boughtest; o-om, they were. The prefixes are sometimes dropped, especially before other prefixes, but it is impossible to find any rule for their omission.

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Thus, kai-nā ka-jēm, I strike; a-rai, he said. The suffix lāi is often used in the same way. Thus, a-mā a-ni-lāi, he is; kai nang nāi-rang ro-hoi-lāi-maing. I thy son-for worthy-am not, I am not worthy to be thy son; mi khat tē pē-lāi-mā, man one even gave-not. In a-ma-ni a-ni-lāy-ā, they were, ā is added to this lāi. Compare Present definite.

The suffix of the Past tense is yoi; compare Rāngkhōl joi, Haliām zei, and Kōm yō, Siyin yō-hi. Thus, a-sēm-pē-yoi, he divided; a-choi-yoi, he brought; kūm hi-yūt-ni-yoi, nang sipā ka-tho-wā, years so-many-were, thy service I did, these many years I served thee. The suffix yoi is occasionally used to denote the present time; thus, a-thi-rang kā-ni-yoi, dying-for I-am, I am about to die. Its real meaning is 'to complete,' to finish.' Compare Rāngkhōl joi. These forms are, therefore, root tenses of a compound verb. Another suffix of the past tense is apparently tā. It occurs in the suffix of the conjunctive participle ta-nā, and in i-chān-mo a-la-tā, how far-is-it? Compare the use of the suffix of the past tenses tā after adjectives in Rāngkhōl.

The suffix of the Present definite and of the Imperfect is  $l\bar{a}i$ ; thus,  $kai-n\bar{a}$   $ka-j\bar{e}m-l\bar{a}i$ , I am, was, striking;  $a-m\bar{a}-n\bar{a}$  ching  $lon-\bar{a}$  shi-rat so-bū  $ka-p\bar{e}k-l\bar{a}i$ , he hill top-on cattle grass is-giving. The prefix ka in  $ka-p\bar{e}k-l\bar{a}i$  seems to be a transitive particle; compare Tibetan g.

The suffix of the Future is rang or rang; thus, wāk-ri-rang, I will go and say; kai-nā a-jēm-rang, I shall strike. The suffix seems to be a postposition with the meaning 'for.' Thus, nang-rang, thee-for, thine; nang nāi-rāng, thy son for, to be thy son. In this way some of the forms occurring in the list may be explained. Thus, nang-nā a-jēm-rang nang-ni, thee-by striking-for thou-art, thou wilt strike; kai ni-rāng kan (i.c., probably ka-ni), I being-for I am, I shall be. Compare kai a-thi-rang kā-ni-yoi, I am about to die. In a-mā-ni-nā a-jēm-ra-so, they will strike, ra is probably identical with rang, and another suffix so is added. Compare, howver, Meithei ra.

Imperative.—The forms in No. 77 and ff. in the list of words are verbal nouns, and not imperatives. The suffix of the imperative is ro or  $r\bar{u}$ , and in the first person plural roi, added to the root or to the suffix  $r\bar{a}ng$ . Thus,  $p\bar{e}$ -ro or  $p\bar{e}$ -r $\bar{u}$ , give;  $\bar{e}n$ -ro, look; ma-tho-ro, put ye on; na-p $\bar{e}$ -r $\bar{a}ng$ -r $\bar{u}$ , give thou; sa-r $\bar{a}ng$ -roi, let us eat.

The root alone, without any suffix, is used as an Infinitive or Verbal nonn; thus, ā-hong, to come; ā-ding, to stand; ka-ningāi a-hoi a-ni-yoi, our-glad-being merry-being it-was, we should make merry. Postpositions are freely added to this form, and in this way adverbial clauses are formed. Thus, bū nēk-būi-yā, food eating-not-in, with hunger; a-sing-yoi-yā, his-to-come-to-senses-finishing-in, when he came to senses; nang nāi hi a-wāt-lē-yā, thy son this his-coming-in, when this thy son came; ma-māng-sū-li-yā, wasting-all-in, when he had wasted all. In all these instances we have the suffix ā added to the root or to the suffixes yoi and lāi (lē, li), that is to say to the verbal noun of compound verbs. Other postpositions used in the same way are khan, lamā, lē, mā, nakipā, nā, and yēlā. Thus, a-ni a-lēk-tē o-om-lē-khan, days few their-being-in, when few days had past; a-hong-lamā, his coming in, when he came; sok-sok khanā a-tān a-ra-sit-mā, snail that his-running his-racing-before, or perhaps: the snail did not run the race, etc. Many similar forms occur, and they may often be as well translated as adverbial and conjunctive participles. The root alone is also occasionally used as an Infinitive of purpose; thus, wok

sēn amā loi-pūk wā a-mā-kha ma-sē-yoi, pigs to-tend his fields to him he-sent. The usual suffix of this form is, however, rāng or rāng-ā. Thus, a-tha-na-rāng-ā, to be; a-jēm-na-rāng-ā, to strike. Compare Future. Instead of rāng we find ro in ka-lom-hāi-lē a-hoi-ning-ā sā-ro, my-friends-with merrily eating-for, in order to make merry with my friends.

Participles.—The Relative participle has been mentioned under the head of Relative pronouns. A Noun of agency seems to be formed by adding hāi; thus, loi-nēi-hāi, a

cultivator; kē-bēr-sēn-hāi, a shepherd.

Adverbial participles are formed by means of the postposition  $\bar{a}$ ; thus,  $o\text{-}o\text{-}j\bar{e}d\bar{a}$ , merrily;  $a\text{-}hoi\text{-}ning\text{-}\bar{a}$ , happy-mind-in, happily. Sometimes no suffix is added; thus,  $o\text{-}o\text{-}y\bar{e}t$ , in plenty; na-mak, ill-not-being, safe and sound. The suffix  $\bar{a}$  also forms a kind of Conjunctive participles. Compare Verbal noun, above. Thus,  $a\text{-}p\bar{a}\text{-}n\bar{a}$   $a\text{-}m\bar{u}k\text{-}yoi\text{-}y\bar{a}$ ,  $n\bar{u}\text{-}ma\text{-}pok\text{-}yoi\text{-}y\bar{a}$ ,  $v\bar{a}k\text{-}tan\text{-}\bar{a}$ , ring  $ro\text{-}ko\text{-}tho\text{-}v\bar{a}$   $a\text{-}t\bar{u}m\text{-}p\bar{e}$ , his father having-seen-him, having-pitied, having run, neck embracing kissed. It will be seen that  $\bar{a}$  may be added to the suffix yoi. It is added to  $t\bar{a}i$  in  $a\text{-}sh\bar{e}\text{-}l\bar{a}y\text{-}\bar{a}$ , gone. Other suffixes of this participle are  $t\bar{a}$  and  $n\bar{a}$ , often added to the suffix of the past tense  $t\bar{a}$ . Thus,  $a\text{-}ni\text{-}da\text{-}t\bar{a}$ , having been;  $t\bar{a}$   $t\bar{a}$  t

There is no Passive voice. The absence of the suffix of the agent is sufficient to indicate the passive. Thus, i-mo a-tho, what is-being-done? kai khā-lo na-jēm, me thou strikest, I am struck; kai khā-lo a-jēm-rang ni-ti, me striking-for thou-sayest, I shall be struck.

Compound verbs are freely formed in order to modify the sense. Thus, a-sēm-pē, he divided-gave, he allotted; wāk-ri-rang, go-say-will, I will go and say; wāk-tan-ā, going-running; wāk-choi-tan-ā, going-bringing-running, bringing quickly. Several prefixes are used. Thus, hoi seems to denote motion from; thus, hoi-rū-ti, to answer. Jong and yoūng, which are no doubt identical, mean motion towards. Thus, jong-koi, to call; yoūng-loi, to take. Ma forms causatives; thus, ma-māng-yoi, he spent; bū nang-ma-nēk, food thou-causest-to-be-eaten, thou givest a feast; ma-sē-yoi, he caused to go, he sent. Some prefixes begin with r, but I cannot see the exact meaning of them; thus, archūn, he joined; ardon, he asked; a-ro-om, he was; a-ro-jēt, he heard; ro-ko-tho-wā, embracing, etc. Other modifying words are added after the verb. The chē in na-pē-mak-chē, thou gavest not, does not form a compound with the preceding verb, but is identical with Lushēi chē, which is said to be added to verbs in order to indicate the object; thus, ka-vēl-ang-chē, I will strike thee. Causatives seem to be formed by adding ma-sak; thus, ri-sē-ma-sak-ro, cause him to wear. Yot forms Desideratives; thus, i-sāk-yot, he wished to eat. Other additions are kir, back; rēt, again; som, together; sū, entirely, etc.

The Negative particle is mak, mā, or maing; thus, tan-lāk-mak, did not run; pē-lāi-mā, did not give; ro-koi-lāi-maing, I am not worthy. Another negative būi, corresponding to Khangaši pēi, occurs in a-thā-būi, good-not, bad; bū nēk-būi-ya, food-eating-not-in, with hunger. In one instance we find a negative top, probably corresponding to Meithei to; thus, ha-ra-ngāi-tap, I disobeyed not.

The Interrogative particle is mo.

The usual Order of Words is subject, object, verb. The indirect object sometimes precedes and sometimes follows the direct one.

## TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

CHIRU.

## SPECIMEN I.

(Babu Bisharup Singh, 1899.)

(STATE, MANIPUR.)

Mi khat nāi apā adi o-om. Adi kong-kārā anāi ma-tūmā a-pā one (-of) child male two were. Two amongst from child younger his futher Man ka-pā-nā ading a-rai, 'ka-pā, kai-a-ding na-pē-rāng-rū nai ko-tum-rang said, 'my-father, my-father-by me-to to-be-given property my-shure-for na-pē-rāng-rū. A-pā-nā a-nāi adivā nai lim a-sem-pe-yoi. His-father his-child two-for property all he-divided-gave. Days alēktē o-om-lē-khan a-nāi matūmā lām-lā laipāk khat dā lim some remaining his-child far country to his-wealth all younger ø a-choi-yoi. Makhā laipāk khan tha-mak-a-khan-ā nai lim ma-mang-yoi. carried-and-went. That country in vickedly property all Amā-nā nai lim ma-māng-sū-livā makhā laipāk khan bū atāng-hai-voi, wasting-after property all that country rice dear-became. He in a-dong-yoi. ma-khan amā Amā-nā makhā laipāk khan o-om in residing person that thereupon he became-wretched. He country laipūk wā amā-kha Mi khā wok sën amā khat-lē a-rchūn-yoi. Person that swine to-pasture his field a-to joined-together. khat mi tě sē-kha amā isāk-vot ma-sē-voi. Wok bū to-eat-wished man one even food even-that he sent. Secine's amā-nā ahēn-dā a-rē-yoi, 'ka-pā adingā sčlo A-sing-voi-yā to-himself said, 'my-father from hired Becoming-sensible he did-not-give. bū něk-būiyā athi-rang a-sāk-voi. Kai-la hāi o-oyet his-servants many in-abundance are-eating. I-on-the-other-hand rice eating-not to-die kā-ni-yoi. Kai ka-pā ading shē-tangā wāk-ri-rang, "Ka-pā, kai Pathin ading I-am-about. I my-father to having-gone will-say, "my-father, I God kai nang nai-rang ro-hoinang mai-kungam kā-lān-yoi; have-done wrong; I your child-to-be worthyhave-done-wrong, you before lāi-maing. Kaitu nang souk angā nā-tēt-rāng-ro." Amā-nā athoiyā anā keep." getting-up his-father He your servant like a-pā-nā a-mā-kha a-mūk-yoiyā, nůmapok-yoiyā, Allā ading a-wa-yoi. having-compassion, From-afar-off his-father him secing, wāk-tan-ā, ring rokothowā, a-tumpē. A-nāi-nā a-pā ading a-rai-yoi, · Ka-pa, wy-father, running, neck embracing, kissed. His-child his-father to

nang māi-kūngam kā-lān-yoi, kai nang kā-lān-yoi, kai Pathin ading before to have-done wrong, you have-done-wrong, I I ading a-rai-yoi Makhan apā-nā asoūk hāi nāi-rāng ro-hoi-lāi-maing.' child-to-be worthy-am not.' Thereupon his-father his-servants many said.a-tha-tak wāk-choi-tan-ā ka-nāi-khā risē-ma-sak-ro; sūngkabēk khat my-child let-wear; ring bringing-quickly best one a-khūt-dā ma-tēng-ro, a-kēyā khonghūp ma-tho-ro. Ka-nāi hi a-thivā. put. My-child this having died his-feet-on shoes his-hand-on put,wai-khat a-hong-ring-rēt-yoi-yē-lā; a-thāngā, atūn kū-mūk-yoi-yē-lā; kai-ni o-ojēdā becoming-alive; having-been-lost, now being-found; we Atūntū ama-ni ahoiyā o-om-yoi. sa-rāng-roi ni-rāng-roi.' they happily remained. Thuslet-us-eat let-us-drink.

ū-liēn-chang loipūk-ā a-ro-om. Amā-nā a-in-ā Khā-faroi-khan anāi That-time-at his-child elder field-in was. He his-house-to a-hong-lam-ā khong ma-ring ālam a-ro-jēt. Amā-nā a-soūk khat a-jong-koiyā, drum sound dancing heard. He his-servant one khā-tiyā a-rrdon. Ma-khan a-soūk-pā kha-nā a-rū-ma-sāng-yoi, atho? 'what is-being-done?' saying asked. Thereupon his-servant that ' na-nāi-pang-pā a-hong-kir-yoi. Amā-nā na-mak a-hong-kir-yoiyā nang pā-nā 'your-brother has-returned. Hе not-being-ill having-returned your father ma-nēk-yoi.' Achong hi a-jēt-lē amā-nā a-sāng-ā ā-mū-lūng ningāi-voivā bū Word this hearing he angry his-mind glad-being rice caused-to-be-eaten.' wāk-sūk-wā in lūt-lāi-mā. Makhā-sikhanlo a-pā a-häng-ä his-father entered-not. This-reason-for coming-out house Ma-khan anāi-nā ading a-rū-ma-sāng-yoi, 'ēn-ro, apā a-nāi-khā a-do-yoi. Thereupon his-child father to answered. his-child entreated. wai-khat tēam nang ka-thowā chong kai kūm hi-yāt-ni-yoi nang sipā wordsyears so-many-were your service in-doing once even your I ka-ra-ngāi-tap; atūnom nang-nā ka-lom-hāi-lē a-hoi-ning-ā sā-ro kē-tē my-friends-with merrily to-eat goat-young have-not-disobeyed; you yet nai lim khat tëam kai ading na-pē-mak-chē. Nang nāi hi nang your wealth have-not-given. Your child this allto one even me sukangyor-ading a-pek-a hi a-wāt-lēyā nang-nā ma-mang-yoi, nang-nai bū karlot-to by-giving wasted. your-child this on-coming you rice nang-ma-nēk. Ma-khan a-pā-nā a-rai-yoi, 'ka-nāi, nang-lā kai-lē you-caused-to-be-eaten.' Thereupon his-father said, 'my-child, you me-with Kai adingā achat-boipēdā na-omsom. lim nang-rang; nang omlive-together. Me to all your being yours; a-thiya, wai-khat a-hong-ring-rot-yoi; näi-pang-pä a-ma-khā a-thang-a. having-died, again that has-become-alive; having-been-lost, wai-khat kū-mūk-rēt-yoi; ma-khā-si-khan-lo kai-ni ka-ningāi a-hoi again has been found; this reason for we to-be-glad to-be-merry it-is-proper.'

# TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

# KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

#### CHIRU.

## SPECIMEN II.

(STATE, MANIPUR.)

(Babu Bisharup Singh, 1899.).

Akai-lē soksok a-tān-ra-sit, soksok kha-na a-tān-a-ra-sit-mā soksok Tiger-with *snail* ran-a-race. snail thatrunning-race-before snails. hāi ading, 'akai-nā na-koi-lē akhat-khat-nā hoi-rū-ti-ro,' a-rai-yoi. all to, 'tiger-by when-called one-after-another give-answer, said. Akailē khanā soksok-lē a-tan-ra-sit. Soksok. khanā amunkune Tiger-with thatsnail-with ran-race. Snail that his-place-in khanā o-om, tan-lak-mak. A-kai khanā a-thēndēvā a-tān-ā thatsoksok remained. did-not-move. Tiger thatalone running a-koi, khanā makhā dingā soksok khanā hoi-rū-tho, a-kai khanā a-koi-na-kip-ā snail called place insnail that answered, tiger that at-every-call o-om-nā-om-nā soksok khanā hoi-rū-tho; khā-ti-khan a-thendeva a-tān-ā whoever-was snail thatanswered; in-this-way alone by-running a-sohāiyā a-thi-yoi. Ma-khan, 'a-kai-tū kai-ni-nā ka-ma-tor-yoi,' a-ningāi-yoi-yā getting-tired he-died. Thereupon, 'tiger we defeated, being-glad soksok hāi akai achūngā 8-lonnā akai abūn khā ajē snails. om-voi. alltiger on-the-back-of treading tiger 8kin that striped remained. Soksok-nā a-lonnā kha-na-hi-ti a-tar-hāi iraiyā khana Snails treading-on it-was-caused ki-jēt. old-men having-told this is-known.

# FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Once on a time a tiger and a snail ran a race. The snail had previously arranged with all the other snails that, whenever the tiger should call him as he ran, he should be answered by any snail met by him in the way.

Accordingly when the tiger started the snail did not move a single step from his place. The tiger, after running alone for some time, called the snail, but was answered by another snail, who was waiting for him in the neighbourhood.

The foolish tiger, mistaking him for the same snail, continued running till he was quite tired out and fell dead on the ground.

Now all the snails gathered in joy and crawled on the dead tiger, leaving stripes on his skin as they crawled along.

This, the old men say, is the reason why the tigers have striped skins.

### KOLREN OR KOIRENG.

The Kolrens or Koirengs are a small tribe in the State of Manipur. According to Mr. Damant, they dwell in eight small villages on the hills north of the valley, and number about 600. They are also found as a migratory tribe in the valley itself. Kolren is the name which the tribe gives to itself, and Koireng is probably a Manipuri corruption of this name. The Kwoirengs or Liyangs, which have been dealt with under the Naga-Kuki group, are a different tribe, and the languages of both have very little in common.

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McCulloth, Major W.,—Account of the Valley of Munnipore and of the Hill Tribes; with a comparative Vocabulary of the Munnipore and other Languages. Selections from the Records of the Government of India (Foreign Department). No. xxvii. Calcutta, 1859. Note on the Koirengs on pp. 64 and f.

DIMINT, G. H.,—Notes on the Locality and Population of the Tribes dwelling between the Brahmaputra and Ningthi Rivers. Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, New Series, Vol. xii, 1880, pp. 228 and ff. Short note on the tribe on p. 238.

The Kolren dialect in essential points agrees with Hallam, Kom, Rangkhol, Langrong, etc.; in some instances most closely with Khongzai. Two specimens and a list of standard words and phrases have been prepared by Babu Bisharup Singh in the Kharang Koireng village in the Manipur valley. They are the only foundation of the remarks on the Kolren dialect which follow.

Pronunciation.—The vowels of the prefixes have apparently a rather indistinct sound. Thus, we find ka-pā and ki-pā, my father; ma-tik, worthy; but mi-tūm, young; ki-ni, two; but kū-rūk, six. This sound might perhaps be denoted by means of an a above the line; thus, k-pā, my father. U is always marked as long, but it is certainly short in many instances. It seems to be interchangeable with o; thus,  $p\bar{e}$ -ro and  $p\bar{e}$ -r $\bar{u}$ , give. It is sometimes also interchanged with oi and uo; thus, soi, so, and su, entirely;  $s\bar{u}ok$ ,  $s\bar{u}k$ , and sok, come out. In a similar way ai is interchangeable with  $\bar{e}$ ; thus, chaiand chē, go; hai, and hē, a verbal prefix denoting motion towards.  $\bar{E}$  and  $i\bar{e}$  interchange in yieng-a and yeng-a, from. When a postposition beginning with a vowel is added to a word ending in a vowel, there is usually a contraction. Thus,  $a-p\bar{a}n$  for  $a-p\bar{a}-in$ , by the father. A cuphonic y is inserted after  $\tilde{e}$  and i; thus, a- $ch\tilde{e}$ - $y\tilde{a}$ , going; lai- $y\tilde{a}$ , in the fields. The diphthong uo is often written uvo; thus, kuworr, ear; puwon, cloth; suwok, suok, suk, and sok, to come out, etc. Final consonants are occasionally silent; thus,  $p\bar{e}k$  and  $p\bar{e}$ , give; nuk and nu, back, etc. Double m is sometimes pronounced almost as single; thus, we find omak for om-mak, is not. The sound of h seems to be rather faint. We find it dropped in some instances in the second specimen; after a preceding n; thus, an-ongsimple for an-hong-sumok, they came ut. Final n seems to be occasionally dropped; thus, a-wa-mi-thëm-yai, he entreated; ki-min-chê-yai, he sent. The prefixes mi and min in these words are no-doubt identical. Final m seems to be interchangeable with ng; thus, ram and rang, place; cham and chong, word. Ng seems to mark a faint nasal sound in sung-tiong or nuk-tiong, behind; maong and mao, not, etc. B and w are interchangeable in a soon, his belly; ka-bon, my belly. The b in such words is due to the common pronunciation of w in Eastern Indo-Aryan vernaculars.

Prefixes and suffixes. - Most suffixes are used in order to effect the inflection of nous and verbs, and will be dealt with below. The same is the case with many profixes. These latter are especially often used before verbs, and their proper meaning cannot always be ascertained. So me profixes seem to have a rather wide meaning. Thus, the prefix a, which usually seems to be identical with the possessive pronoun of the third person, is used in the formation of nouns and adjectives. Thus, a-nai, property; a-wirr, nose; a-lam, dancing; a-lak, for. A prefix beginning with k occars in numerals and verbs; thus, ki-ni, two; kan-tham, three; ka-rak, six; kerr-tha, to arise; ke-hai-thai, heard. A prefix ma or mi occurs in ma-tile, worthy; mi-tam, young; milli, four, etc. Compare Compound verbs.

Articles. -There are no articles. The numeral khat, one, is used as an Indefinite article, and prefixes, demonstrative pronouns, and relative clauses supply the place of the Definite article.

Nouns.-Nouns denoting relationship and parts of the body are usually preceded by a possessive pronoun. Thus, ki-nū-mai, wife, lit. my wife; a-mit, eye, lit. his eye.

Gender is only apparent in the case of animate nouns. It is, when necessary, distinguished by means of suffixes, or, in the case of human beings, also by using different words. Thus, ki-pā, my father: ka-nū, my mother: pasal, man; nū-mai, woman. Pā and  $n\bar{u}$  are the usual suffixes in the case of human beings; thus,  $cha\cdot p\bar{u}$ , son;  $cha\cdot n\bar{u}$ . daughter. In No. 101 we find the form ki-pā khat-pā, my-father one-male. The pā in khat-pā is, however, perhaps the suffix of a relative participle. Compare a-cha-pā  $\bar{u}$ - $p\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$ , his son-male old-male-being, his elder son. The usual suffixes in the case of animals are chal and tang, male, and pi or api, female. Thus, sakorr chal, horse: sakorr api, mare: ūi-tang, dog; ūi-pi, bitch.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. When it is necessary to denote the plural some word meaning 'many,' 'all,' etc., is added. Thus, a-soūk hāi, his servant all, his servants; nū-mai a-sā an-tam, woman good many, good women.

Case. - The Nominative and the Accusative do not take any suffix. Ko, probably a demonstrative pronoun, is sometimes added to the noun in order to emphasise it. Thus, ha-wā chong hin Kol-rēn-ko a-tam sūwok-maong, that reason for Kolrēns many came-out-not, therefore many Kolrens did not come out. The suffix in, denoting the agent, is usually added to the subject of a transitive verb. Thus, a-pan a-nai pūm-pāng a-cha-pā ki-ni yieng a-sem-pēk-yai, his father his property all his sons two to he-divided-gave. The Genitive is usually expressed by putting the governed before the governing word. Thus, hi-wa sa-korr hi-ko kum, this horse this year, the years of this horse; mi-pā in-ā, thy father's house-in. The governed word is sometimes repeated before the governing one by means of a possessive pronoun. Thus, pasal khat a-cha-pa, man one his-sons; ka-bon-a-chām-ā, my-belly-its-hunger-in, with hunger. A suffix tā, probably meaning 'belonging to,' 'being,' is sometimes added to the governed noun. Thus, ka-pā-tā sē-lo a-souk hāi, my-father's hired servants all. This suffix is also used in Lushei and connected languages, especially when the governing word is understood. Compare the corresponding sentence in the English original 'how many hired servants of my father's.' Other relations are expressed by means of postpositions. Such are :-  $\bar{a}$ , in, to, on; in, in; kārā, from; kunguoyā, under; lē, together with, by means of; mā-tiyēng, mā-tiēng, and 2 H 2

 $m\bar{a}i$ - $k\bar{u}ng$ - $\bar{a}$ , before;  $n\bar{u}ng$ - $tiy\bar{e}ng$  and  $n\bar{u}k$ - $ti\bar{e}ng$ , behind;  $s\bar{u}ng\bar{a}$ , in;  $yi\bar{e}ng$ , to;  $yi\bar{e}ng$ - $\bar{a}$ , from, etc.

Adjectives.—Adjectives are usually preceded by one of the prefixes a and mi. Thus, a-lāk, far; mi-tūm, younger. A-nai-tak-ā, near, is an adverbial expression, lit. 'near-much-in.' A suffix pā, probably forming a relative participle, is sometimes added. Thus, mi-tūm-pā, young-being; ū-pā, old-being. The original verbal force of the adjectives appears in forms such as pasal-pā a-sā an-tam, man good many, where the prefix an in an-tam is identical with the plural pronominal prefix used with verbs. Adjectives usually follow, but occasionally precede, the noun they qualify; thus, a-cha-pā mi-tūm-pi, his-son the-younger; a-lāk lai-pāk khat-ā, far country one-to. The particle of comparison seems to be nēko; thus, a-mā a-charr-nū nēko a-nāi-pā a-sāng, he his-sister than his-brother he-tall(-is), his brother is taller than his sister. Another form of the comparative is a-mā ēkin-ko (perhaps nēk-in-ko) a-mā sā-dēt, him than he good-more, better. Kārā, from, may be used instead of nēko; thus, a-tam kārā a-sā-ko a-mā a-sā, many from good he good, best. A kind of superlative is also formed by adding tak, much, to the adjective. Thus, a-sa-tak pūwon, the best cloth.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. They follow the noun they qualify. Ki in ki-ni, kan in kan-thum, etc., are probably generic prefixes. Compare Tibetan gñis, two; gsum, three, and similar forms in several Bodo and Nāgā dialects. Chai is another prefix used when the number applies to money. Thus, dangkā chai-ni, two rupees. Other generic prefixes do not occur in the specimens.

Pronouns.—The following are the *Personal pronouns*:—Singular,—

kai, I.nang, thou. $a-m\bar{a}$ , he.ka, ki, my.na, ni, thy. $a-m\bar{a}$ , a, his.kai-tā, mine.nang-tā, thine. $a-m\bar{a}-t\bar{a}$ , his.

Plural,—

kai-ni, we. nang-ni, you. an-mā-ni, they. kai-ni-tā, our. nang-ni-tā, yeur. an-mā-ni-tā, their.

Demonstrative pronouns such as  $h\bar{a}$  and ko, that, are often added to the personal pronouns in order to emphasise; thus,  $a-m\bar{a}-h\bar{a}$ , him;  $an-m\bar{a}-ni-ko$ , they. The objective case may be formed by adding chi to the verb; thus,  $ni-p\bar{v}-mak-chi$ , thou didst not give me. The genitive is formed in the same way as with substantives or by means of the possessive pronouns. Thus, kai-ni chong, our word, of us; nang  $na-sip\bar{a}$ , thou thy-service, thy service; ni-ming, thy name, etc.

Demonstrative pronouns.—Hi, ki-wā, and ki-wā ki-ko, this; kā and ka-wā, that. Ko, which is often added to nouns and pronouns, is probably a demonstrative pronoun. Thus, ū-pā kāi chong-ko, old all word-that, the tale of old people is the following. Hanko seems to mean 'that' in nini-tho kanko ang-sik-mo-ni, you-done that what-for-is? why are you doing these things. In ha-wā-hau-ko, thereupon, han-ko seems to be for kā-in-ko, that-in.

There are no Relative pronouns. The relative participle is usually formed without any suffix and is identical with the form used to denote present and past times. Thus, a-mā ram-ā a-om pasal khat, that place-in being man one; wok yiëng a-pē cha-wāi, pigs

to given husks; nini-tho han-ko, you-done that, that which you are doing; knin ban-sik-a-ni a-nai ki-tūm ha-wā, me-by getting-for-being property share that the share of the property which I shall get; yāo-khāl-pasal, cattle-tending-man, shepherd. A suffix pā has been mentioned in connexion with adjectives. Thus, a-cha-pā mi-tām-pā ha-wā, his-son younger that. Another suffix is nā in mi-ring a-hong-sok-nā khūrr-pi ha-wā, men coming-out hole that, the hole through which the people might have come out. This nā is common in connected dialects. In Lai the corresponding suffix is nāk, which is used to form relative participles, compound nouns, etc. In na-nai-nak, thy property, we probably have the same suffix, nai-nak being derived from-nai, to have. Compare Lai ka-nāk, road, from kal, to go.

Interrogative pronouns.—Khoi-mo and khoy-ē-ni, who? ang-ē and ang-mo, what? ang-sik-mo and ang-sik-ē-ni, why? i-yāt-mo and ang-yūt-mo, how many? Thus, ni-nūk-tiēng khoi chā mo a-wā, thee-behind whose boy comes? ni-ming any-mo-nti (i.e., ang-mo ni-ti), thy name what-do-you-call? I-yāt-mo contains another stem i; compare i-mo, what? in Rāngkhōl, etc. A pronoun tū-mo, who? may be inferred from tū-nūm, anyone.

**Verbs.**—Verbs are conjugated in person and number by means of pronominal prefixes. The following occur:—ka and ki, I; kin, we: na and ni, thou; nin, nina and nini, you: a, he, she, it; an and ana, they. The final vewels in nina, nini, and ana, are probably only an inorganic vocalic sound inserted between concurrent consonants in order to make the pronunciation easier.

The root alone, without any suffix, is freely used to denote present and past times. Thus, kai ki-chai, I am; pa-sal khat a-cha-pā ki-ni an-om, man one his-sons two theywere. A-ni, it is, it was, is sometimes added, apparently in order to emphasise that the action really takes place. Thus, a-ni-ti-a-ni, he-said-it-is, he said indeed; ka-nè-ri-chok-a-ni, I-bought-it-is, I bought indeed.

A suffix  $\bar{a}$  is sometimes added. Thus, kai-ni-ko a- $f\bar{u}t$ - $p\bar{e}k$ - $\bar{a}$ -ko Pa- $thi\bar{e}n$   $kh\bar{u}r$ - $\bar{a}$  kin-am- $\bar{a}$ , we at-first God's netherland-in we-were. This suffix is probably a copula or verb substantive. In a-tam an-ong- $s\bar{u}k$ -o, many they-came-out, we have apparently a suffix o used in a similar way. Compare Introduction, p. 7, above.

The suffix of the Past tenses is yai. Thus, a-sēm-pēk-yai, he-divided-gave. Yai probably means 'complete,' 'finish'; compare Rāngkhōl jōi. Hence it may also be used to denote the present time when the action is denoted as a completed or established fact. Thus, thi-rong ka-ti-yai, dying-for I-have-said, I am about to die; ki-ma-tik-ni-mak-yai, I-worthy-am-no-more.

A Present definite and an Imperfect are effected by adding the verb om, to be, to remain, to the principal verb. Om is, in this form, apparently used as an impersonal verb, and the principal verb takes the form of a participle or verbal noun. Thus, kain ki-wēl-ā a-om, me-by my-striking-in it-is, I am striking; kain nong cham ki-ngāi-mak-nā omak, me-by thy word my-disobeying was not; kain ki-wēl-ā a-om-yai, I was striking.

The Future is formed by adding ing, sik, and rang, all probably postpositions meaning 'for,' 'in order to' and conveying the force of a future or an imperative. To these forms are added the verb si, to be, and another verb which has the forms tā, tō, and ti, and probably corresponds to Lushèi ti, to say, to do, to work towards. Thus, wa-chèng-ki-tā, going-for-I-saying, I-will-go; wa-ril-ing-ki-tō, I will say; kai-ni a-

hoi-yō om-sik-a-ni, we happily being-for it-is, we should be happy; thi-rong-ka-ti-yai, dying-for-I-said, I am dying. These forms apparently consist of an infinitive of purpose or imperative and the verbs ni and ti. Analogous forms occur in connected languages such as Hallam, Khongzai, Pankhū, or Mhūr. Compare above, p. 196. In Khongzai the future is formed by adding to to the principal verb. This verb tē may then be inflected, by means of the ordinary pronominal prefixes, in person; thus, nang-in wonāng-na-tē, thou wilt strike. It seems to be different in Kolrēn, if we can trust the list of words which contains forms such as nang-ni (i.e., nang-in) ni-wēling kē-tē, thou wilt strike, and adds kē-te to the form wēl-ing in all persons and numbers. Kē-tē must then be a compound verb with a prefix kē, before which the usual pronominal prefixes are dropped. The suffix ing seems to be related to ēng or dēng in khodēng a-thē-yai, he fell in want. Sik also occurs in forms such as ang-sik-mo-ni, why-is-it? pūm-pāng nang-nai-sik, all thy property-for, it will all become thy-property, etc.

The suffix of the Imperative is ro or  $r\bar{u}$ , and in the first person plural roi; thus,  $p\bar{e}$ -ro and  $p\bar{e}$ -ru, give; cha-in-lā om-roi, eating let-us-remain. In  $k\bar{u}$ -ti khat n: i-tiyēng-ro, ring one cause-(him-)to-put-on, the suffix ro seems to be added to the future suffix ing or  $\bar{e}ng$ . Another suffix o seems to occur in  $l\bar{u}t$ -o a-ti- $n\bar{u}m$ -a- $d\bar{a}$ -yai, 'enter' saying-evenhe-refused, he would not go in.

The root alone is used as an Infinitive or Verbal Noun. Thus, kai-ni-wēl a-sā, my-striking good-is, I may strike; ni-cha-pā chang ki-ma-tik-ni-mak-yai, thy son to-be I-worthy-am-no more. The past tense in yai is, in the same way, used as a past verbal noun before postpositions. Such are added in order to form adverbial clauses. Thus, ni-a-lēk-a-lak om-ā, days few being-in, when few days had passed; a-ching-yai-yā, hiscoming-to-senses-finishing-in, when he had come to senses;  $n\hat{e}$ -hong- $p\hat{e}k$ - $\tilde{a}$ , his-comingtime-at, when he came; a-mang-so-nā, his-wasting-all-after, when he had wasted all; chong ha-wā a-thai-dang-ā, word that his-hearing-in, when he heard this word. The forms ka-chē, go; a-chā-yē, eat, etc., in No. 77 and ff, are probably verbal nouns. There are no instances of their use in the specimens. The suffix of the Infinitive of purpose is sik; thus, ki-sūwan-lē kē-roi-lēyā a-hoi-yū ki-chāk-sik, my-friends-with together merrily my-cating-for, in order that I might feast with my friends. The forms chang-sik-a-ni, to be, and ni-wel-sik-a-ti, to strike, are compound forms and seem literally to mean 'being-for-it-is,' and 'striking-for-he-says.' An imperative in connection with the participle of ti, to say, may also be used in order to denote the purpose. Thus, pasal-pa ha-wā wok yong-khāl-ro ki-ti a-mā lai-yā a-mā-hā ki-min-chē-yai, man that 'pigs tend' saying his fields-to him sent.

Participles.—The Relative participle has been mentioned in connexion with Relative pronouns. Adverbial participles are formed by adding the postposition  $\bar{a}$ ; thus, a-hoi-yā, merrily; na-lai-sa-lai-yā, safely. The same form is also used as a Conjunctive participle; thus, a-mang-yai-yā wai-khat ki-bān-yai, he-lost-having-been again found-was. The root alone is also used in this way; thus, lūt-o a-ti-nām-a-dā-yai, 'enter' saying-even-he-rofused; wok yong-khāl-ro ki-ti ki-min-chē-yai, 'pigs tend' saying he sant. The suffix in-lā forms a conjunctive participle which is substituted for the first of two co-ordinate imperatives. Thus, a-sa-tak pāson hai-choinlā ki-cha-pā min-bāng-ro, best cloth bringing my-son cause-to-wear.

There is no Passive roice. Thus, well witney a-picka-mil, pigs to given leasks; e-bin-yai-yā, he has been found again. The context, and the absence of the sadix of the agent, show that such forms have a passive meaning. I cannot properly analyse the forms kai-yē ai-wēl, I am struck; kai-yē ni-wēl-hi-ka-ti, I shall be struck. Kai-yē seems to mean "concerning me."

Compound verbs are freely formed in order to modify the meaning of the principal verb. Thus, a-sem-pek-yes, he divided-gave; a-hong-kir-yes, he-came-he-returned, he came back; an-ong-sawok, they-came-went-out, they crime out. There are, especially, several prefixes. Hair and he seem to denote motion towards; thus, hair-class to bring; hai-koi, to call; he-min-to-ro, put on him. Ke cacurs in verbs such as kerrthe, to arise; kē-hai-thai, he heard. It does not appear to add anything to the meaning. The same is the case with ki in forms such as ki-ti, saying; ki-min-chi-yai, he sent. Leik, lai, and la seem to be different forms of a verb which perhaps means to be.' Thus, a laik-out, he was; kai ki lai-chang-chang, I was; kai ki la-chang, I am. The prefix min forms causatives. Thus, ki-min-ché-yai, he caused to go, he sent; min-bang-ro, cause to wear, etc. A prefix na, perhaps corresponding to the Mikir defining prefix wing, occurs in tu-num na-pē-pēk-mao-yai, anyone gave not. Another prefix nē is found in ni-cha-pā hi nē-hongpēk-ā, thy son this came-when. It is perhaps connected with a-nai, near. It is combined with another prefix ri in ne-ri-chok, to buy. Ni is prefixed to several transitive verbs; thus, a-ni-wēl, he strikes; a-ni-ti-a-ni, he-said-it-is, he said indeed. Wa is a verb meaning 'to go,' 'to come.' It is often prefixed to other verbs and seems to convey the idea of motion; thus, a-wa-tān-ā, running; a-wa-mi-thēm-yai, he entreated, etc. Yong seems to mean motion from, away; thus, yong-thal-ro, draw (water from the well): a-yong-mū, he caught sight of (him); yong-khūl-ro, go and tend (pigs), etc. The verb khāl, to tend, seems to be connected with Lushēi kal, to go, and to represent a well-known principle for the formation of causatives by means of aspiration of the initial consonant. Desideratives are formed by adding nuwom, to wish; thus, a-chā-nuwom-tak, he-to-eatwished much. Potentiality is denoted by adding thai; thus, miring hai sok-thai-mak-a, people all come-out-could-not. Soi, so, and su, seem to mean 'entirely'; suom, together; tak, much, etc.

The Negative particles are mak and mao or maony; thus, ni-mak, is-not, no; ni-pē-mak-chi, thou-gavest-not-to-me; Kol-rēn-ko a-tam sūwok-maony, Kolrēns many came-out-not. Note the reduplication of the verb in na-pē-pēk-mao-yai, did not give.

The Interrogative particle is mo. Compare Interrogative pronouns.

The usual Order of Words is subject, object, verb. The indirect object usually follows the direct one.

[No. 25.]

## TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

# KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

### KOLBEN OR KOIRENG.

## SPECIMEN I.

(STATE, MANIPUR.)

(Babu Bisharup Singh, 1899.)

Pasal khat achapā kini anom. Anmāni kini kārā achapā mitūmpā Man twoone his-sons had. Them  $t_{100}$ from his-son younger hawā yieng a-ni-ti-a-ni, apā 'kapā, kain bān-sik-a-ni anai kitum hawā that his-father 'my-father, by-me to-be-received goods share that to said, kai yieng na-pe-rū.' Apān anai pūmpāng achapā kini vieng to 101.0 give.' His-father his-goods all his-sons two a-sem-pek-yai. Ni alek-alak omā achapā mitumpā anai pümpäng he-divided-gave. Days a-few remaining his-son younger his-property all a-choi-soi-vai alāk laipāk khat-ā achēvaivā anai pūmpāng hawā distant country having-gone his-properly a-to all that puwo-mag-a a-mang-soi-yai. pūmpāng hawā amangso-nū a-ram-ā Anai bū wickedly wasted. His-wealth all that wasting-after place-in rice a-lai-lū. Hawa-hanko atam amā khodēng-a-thē-vai. Amān amā ram-ā very became-dear. Thereupon he became-wretched. Hе that place-in yieng acheya an-kiy-archun-yai. Pasalpa hawa pasal khat residina TROM one to going joined-logether. Man that swine kiti yong-khāl-ro amā laivā amāhā ki-min-chē-yai. Wok yieng ape saying his field-to him sent. Swine to given chawai rangam a-cha-nuwom-tak. tūnūm na-pē-pēk-mao-yai. A-ching-yai-yā husks he-to-eat-wished-much, anyone even did-not-give. Becoming-sensible amān achaibēyā a-ni-ti-a-ni, 'kapā-tā sēlo asoūk hāi ahoiyā an-chāk-ā to-himself said, 'my-father's hired his-servants all happily feeding an-cha-niyang-yai, kaiko ka-bon-a-chām-ā thi-rong-ka-ti-yai. Kai they-eating-living-were, I my-stomack-its-hunger-with am-about-to-die. I my-father yičng wa-cheng-ki-tā wa-ri-ling-ki-tē, "kcpā, kai Pathien māi-kūngā nang-māi-kūngā going will-say, "my-father, I God before you-before kilėmalė-yai, nichapā chang ki-ma-tik-ni-mak-yai. Kai ni-souk khat have-done-wrong, gour-son to-be worthy-am-not. Me your-servant one tūkā ni-tēt-ro." Aman akerrtheya apā yiëng a-wa-vai, alāk like He arising his-father to came. far place-in

apān a-yong-mū, a-ning-a-si-yaiyā, a-wa-tan-ā, a-ning a-wa-kolā, a-omā he-saw, his-miad-it-pitying running, his-neck embracing. he-remaining his-father Achapā hawā yieng a-wa-ril-yai, apā ·kapá, kai l'athien he-kirsed. His-son that his-father to 'my-futher, I soid, māi-kūngā nang māi-kūngā kilēmalē-yai, ni-chapā chang ki-ma-tik-ni-mak-yai. have-done-scrong, your-son to-be before before worthy-am-not. Apán asoŭk hāi yiệng chong areka, 'asatak půwon hai-choin-là His-father his-servants all to orders gave, best clutives kichapā min-bāng-ro; a-khūt-ā kūti khat min-tiyêng-ro, a-kê-yû kéhūp my-son cause-to-wear; his-hand-on ring one pest. his-feet-on hē-min-to-ro; kichapā hi athiyā, wai-khat a-hong-ring-yai-yā; my-son this having-died, again becoming-alire; having-been-lost, wai-khat a-bān-yaiyā; kaini ahoiyā cha-in-lā omroi.' Hingā-yenta anmani being-found; merrily eating let-us-remain.' we Thus they ahoiyā an-om-yai. happily remained.

Hawa khanan achapā ūpā-pā laipūkā a-laik-om. Aman That time-at his-son elder field-in tous. Hе ล-inā nwā khuwong alām asiitā aring kē-hai-thai. Amān his-house-to drumin-coming beating dancing sound heard. He asoūk khat a-hai-koivā. nini-tho-hanko ang-sik-mo-ni? a-ding-kel-vai. his-servant one calling, 'you-by-done-that why-is? asked. Hawā-hanko asoūk hawā asangyai, ' ni-nāi-pā a-hong-kir-yai. Amā Thereupon his-servant that answered, 'your-brother has-returned. Re na-lai-sa-lai-yā a-hong-kir-ā a-ning-a-sā ni-pān a-pēk. bū without-illness having-returned your-father glad-being rice(feast) he-gives. athaidangā amān a-lüng-a-thak-ā inā Chong hawā lūto a-ti-nüm-a-dā-yai. Word this being-angry house-in enter he-to-say-refused. hearing he Hiwā chong-hin a-wa-sūok-ā a-wa-mi-thēm-yai. Hawā-hanko achapā apān This reason-for his-father having-come-out entreated. Thereupon his-80% hawā apā yiéng asāngyai, fenro, kum hiwa-tukin nang na-sipā that father to answered, 'look, years eo-many your your-service kithowā wai-khat-bai kain nang cham ki-ngāi-mak-nā omak. Hawā-takhan in-doing I once-even words disobeying your was-not. Nevertheless ki-sûwan-lê kê-roi-lêya ahoiya ki-chak-sik kêl ki-sap tē khat beum my-friends companions-with together merrily to-eat goat young one even ni-pē-mak-chi. Sükäng yieng na-nai-nak pümpäng a-pēk-ā you-have-not-given. Harlot to your-property all giving ni-min-mang-sūwā nichapā hi nē-hong-pēk-ā nî-pêk-yai.' bū nang who-wasted your-101 this on-coming rice (feast) have given." you Hawa-hanko apān a-ti-yai, 'kichapā, nang-ko kai-lē anisŭoni ni-om-suom; Thereupon his-father said, 'my-son, you me-with live-together: alway**s** 

### KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

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Ni-nāi-pā nang-nai-sik. hi ki-nai achang pumpang athiyā, Your-brother my-wealth being allyour-wealth-for. thishaving-died, a-mang-yai-yā, wai-khat wai-khat a-hong-ring-yai; ki-bān-yai; hiwā having-been-lost, again has-become-alive; againhas-been-found; this chong-hin kai-ni ahoiyā om-sik-a-ni.' to-remain-it-is. merrily reason-for 100

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## TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

## KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

### KOLREN OR KOIRENG.

## SPECIMEN II.

(STATE, MANIPUR.)

(Babu Bisharup Singh, 1899.)

Upā hāi kaini-ko a-füt-pêk-ā-ko Pathien chong ko. khūrā The-old all word that. we at-first God's nether-land-in kin-omā. Miring a-hong-sok-nā khūrrpi hawā lüng a-khār-ā. we-icere. People coming-out hole that stone (with) was-shul-up. miring hāi sok-thai-mak-a. Hawā-hanko lāi-lēnin lūng hawā people  $\alpha l \mathbf{l}$ come-out-could-not. Then a-bird stone that a-fong-ā miring hāi an-ong-suwok. Kolrën<sup>1</sup> kaini-ko kin-khēk-ā opening prople all came-out. Koireng we making-noise kin-ong-sūwok-ā, Pathiën-in 'atam wai-vai' a-ti-vā wai-khat a-ni-khār-ā. coming-out, God-by many are' saying again skul-up. Khongsāi, Mērong, an-mā-ni-ko a-ching-ā an-om-chiénā atam Khongzāis, Kabui (Nāgās) they sensibly being-silent Many an-ong-sūko. Hawā chong-hin Kolrēn-ko atam suwok-maong. came-out. That reason-for Kulrën many did-not-come-out. An-mā-ni-ko a-tam an-súwo. Those DIGHT came-out.

## FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Our ancestors tell that, at first, we were in the nether land. There was a hole leading from that place to this world; but it was always kept shut up with a heavy stone, and the people could not come out (to this world). But one day it so happened that a bird removed the stone and so all the subterranean people passed out, one after another, through this hole; but the Koirengs (who were coming behind) made so much noise when passing through the hole that it came to the notice of God, who, thinking them too many, shut up the hole again. But the Khongzāis and Kabuis were more provident and kept silent and so many of them were able to pass out (without the knowledge of God).

This, my the Koirengs, is the reason why their population is so small and why the other Nagas are so numerous.

<sup>1</sup> Kolren is the name of the caste used by the people themselves.

### KŌM.

Kom is spoken in a few villages in Manipur, chiefly among the hills bordering the west side of the valley, and at Sinamkom, about twelve miles to the north of Manipur. The Deputy Commissioner states that the Koms and some other neighbouring tribes are small communities, with populations varying from 500 to 1,000 souls each. We may therefore put the number of speakers down as about 750. Major W. McCulloch makes the following statement:—

'The Kom at one time was a powerful tribe, and their chief village not very long ago contained so many as six hundred houses. They bordered on the Khongjais, and though the two tribes were connected by intermarriage, their feuds were frequent and bloody. Several Khongjai villages paid them tribute. Amongst the Koms, the villages which have more largely intermarried with the Khongjais, have adopted in all particulars Khongjai usages even to the prejudices of the comb, whilst those that have kept more to themselves remain their own. The heads of the pure Kom villages appear elective and to have no great power or perquisites. Their customs, too, are much the same as those of the Konpocees.'

The Köms, like the Khongzais, Kolrens, etc., think that their forefathers lived in the interior of the earth. This tradition is found in the second specimen.

#### AUTHORITY-

McCullocu, Major W.—Account of the Valley of Munnipore and of the Hill Tribes; with a Comparative Vocabulary of the Munnipore and other Languages. Selections from the Records of the Government of India (Foreign Department). No. xxvii. Calcutta, 1859. Short account of the tribe on pp. 64 and f.

I am indebted to Colonel H. Maxwell, C.S.I., the Political Agent in Manipur, for the two specimens and the list of words printed below. They have been prepared by Babu Bisharup Singh, of Uribok, and are, so far as I am aware, the first specimens of Köm ever published. The following notes are entirely based on the forms contained in these specimens.

Pronunciation.—The vowels i and ē seem sometimes to be interchangeable; thus, Pathin and Pathēn, God. The vowel i in the suffix in is often dropped after a preceding ā; thus, pān, for pā-in, by the father. The final vowel of the verb thē, to hear, is written ai, in thai-ā, hearing. In the same way we find ai instead of ā in a-ning-ka-thai-yō, they were happy; but, a-ning-ka-thā, happy. Aspirated nasals and liquids are relatively frequent; thus, ka-lhā, far; mhū, to see; ka-nhūng-ā, behind; ka-rhing, safe, etc.; but the writing is not consistent. Thus we find lai and lhai, field; mang and mhang, lost; nhūm and nūm, wish; rhi and ri, say. We may add that h is sometimes dropped before vowels, if ōng-ka-rhing-yō, he came-alive, is for hōng-ka-rhing-yō. A final tenuis is often changed to a media when a vocalic suffix is added; thus, kāp, to shoot; but a-kāb-ā, shooting: wai-khai, once, again; but wai-khad-ā, again: kūt, hand; but a-kūd-ā, his-hand-on. The opposite change occurs in sēpā, service, which word is borrowed from the Bengali sēlā. Consonants are occasionally silent; thus, k is dropped in ku-sā, eat; but a-sāk-nhām-tā, he-to-cat-wished; an-sāg-ā, they-cating. N and l are interchanged in ran or ral, property; s and sh in ka-sāk or ka-shik, to come out.

Prefixes and Suffixes.—Most of these are used to form cases and tenses, and will be treated below. There remain, however, several, the proper meaning of which can no more be ascertained, and in this respect Kom represents the same stage of development as the Balo and Naga languages.

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The following Preferes have been arranged alphabetically to avoid repetition, many of them being used before several classes of words:—

a is perhaps identical with the possessive pronoun of the third person. It is used before substantives, adjectives, and verbs. Thus, a-pā, O father; a-rameā, that-country-in; α-ũ-pā, the elder son; a-ka-lhēk, some; a-ka-lhū, goal; a-kheng-ā all; α-pē-rō, give; a-dā-pū-rō, keep, etc.

ga occurs in a-ga-kūā, he embraced. Compare ka, below.

in is prefixed to several verbs; thus, in-chang, to make; in-chan, to join; in-let-in-theg-a, abundantly; in-rhi, to say; in-sung, to sit, etc. It also occurs in in-ang-a, like. The same prefix is very common in Hallom, and also in other languages of the same group.

ka is the most common of all prefixes and seems to have a still wider use than the corresponding prefix in Anglani. In form it is identical with the possesssive pronoun of the first person. The list of words generally prefixes a ka to all nouns denoting relationship or parts of the body; thus, ka-pa, father; ka-kū, hand. This ka probably means 'my' and is dropped after the possessive pronouns of the second and third persons; thus, no-pain, they father; a-kad-a, his-hand-on. Ka is further used to form verbal nouns; thus, kynyöng-ka-ser, shepherd (ser to tend); a-ka-lam, dancing; ka-re, companion; ka-tim, friend; ka-sū-pi, harlot; ka-ni, sun, day. Adjectives are frequently preceded by ka; thus, ka-lhā, far; ka-matik, worthy; ka-sāi, tall; ka-thā, good; ka-tom, many; ka-tang, expensive, etc. Participles ending in a are often precided by ka; thus, ka-sē-ā, going; ka-tki-ā, having died, etc. It also occurs in the finite verb; thus, ka-sē-yō, went; ka-fāk-yō, was found again. The list of words also contains forms such as ka-sā, eat; ka-sē. go, etc. I cannot say what form is intended, as no instances are given; but probably a verbal noun or infinitive is meant. Ka seems to become ko before om and hong; thus, ko-om, was; ni kō-ōm, to be; kō-hōng-yō, came. This ka or kō probably represents several different prefixes. Compare the prefix ka in the Bodo and Naga languages. See also Introduction, pp. 15 and f.

ma is sometimes prefixed to nouns relating to parts of the human body, like the prefix mi in Kachchā Nāgā; thus, ma-lai, tongue; ma-lung, heart. It also occurs in some adjectives and verbs. Thus, ma-tik, worthy; ma tum-pā, the younger; ma-sōn, to answer; ma-thēm, to entreat; ma-yōp, to kiss. Compare Meithei.

ni occurs in ni-kō ōm, to be. See also passive voice, below.

ra seems to be interchangeable with ka in ra-nhag-ā and ka nhag-ā, highly, very. Further we find ra-nai, ground; ra-mhing, name.

ta seems to be a verbal prefix: thus, ta-fiik-sik, to be received. Compare the transitive prefix ti, ta, in Lushëi, Rältë, Paitë, etc. It corresponds to Tibetan d. Most of the Suffixes which occur in the specimens and in the list will be found under verbs, below. Here I shall only mention two, ba or wa, and rai. Ba and wa are added to

verbs, below. Here I shall only mention two, ba or wā, and rai. Ba and wā are added to demonstrative pronouns, perhaps in order to give emphasis. Thus, hi-wā, this; kha-wā, that, kha-ba-ka-nhāng-ā, that after. This wā is originally a demonstrative pronoun. It is also found in Kolrön. Rai seems to be added in order to form abstract nouns; thus, ka-tim, friend: tim-rai, friendship.

Articles.—There are no articles. The numeral in-khat, one, is used as an indefinite article, and pronominal prefixes, demonstrative pronouns and relative clauses supply the place of a definite article.

**Nouns.**—Gender seems only to be apparent in the case of animate beings. It is not denoted unless it is necessary in order to avoid ambiguity. Different words may be used; thus, ka- $p\bar{a}$ , father; ka- $n\bar{u}$ , mother: pa- $s\bar{e}$ , man;  $n\bar{u}$ - $mha\bar{u}$ , woman. The usual suffixes are, in the case of human beings,  $p\bar{a}$ , male, and  $n\bar{u}$ , female. In the case of animals they are  $ch\bar{e}$ , male, and  $(a)p\bar{u}i$ , female. Thus,  $s\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$ , son;  $s\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{u}$ , daughter: sa- $k\bar{o}r$   $ch\bar{e}$ , horse; sa- $k\bar{o}r$   $ap\bar{u}i$ , mare:  $\bar{u}i$ - $ch\bar{e}$ , dog;  $\bar{u}i$ - $p\bar{u}i$ , bitch. The suffix  $p\bar{u}i$  seems to be identical with  $p\bar{i}$  in ka- $s\bar{u}$ - $p\bar{i}$ , harlot.

Number is only marked when it does not appear from the context. The plural is then denoted by adding some word meaning 'many' such as nghai or ka-tam. Thus, a-shak-nghai nhēng, his-servants to; ka-pā ka-tam, fathers.

Case.—The Nominative and Accusative do not take any suffix. The subject of a transitive verb is distinguished by the suffix in denoting the agent. The Genitive is expressed by putting the governed before the governing noun. Thus, ka- $p\bar{a}$  shak, my-father's servants. In No. 225 the governed noun seems to be repeated by means of the pronoun a, his. Thus, ka- $p\bar{a}$   $n\bar{a}i$ -pang- $p\bar{a}n$  a- $s\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}n$ , my father's brother his-son. Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions, such as  $\bar{a}$ , in, on, to;  $ari\bar{a}$ , in;  $haiy\bar{a}$ , under; ka- $nh\bar{u}ng$ - $\bar{a}$ , behind;  $l\bar{e}$ , with;  $m\bar{a}i$ - $k\bar{u}ngam$ , before;  $mh\bar{a}$ , before;  $nh\bar{e}ng$ , to;  $nh\bar{e}ng$ - $\bar{a}$ , to, from;  $p\bar{u}k$ - $\bar{a}$ , in, to; sik- $\bar{a}$ , for;  $w\bar{a}ng$ , with, etc.

Adjectives.—Adjectives usually follow, but occasionally precede, the noun they qualify. The suffix of comparison seems to be ka- $n\bar{e}g$ - $\bar{a}$ , corresponding to  $n\bar{e}k$ -in and  $n\bar{e}k$ - $\bar{a}$  in Hallām and Langrong. Thus, a- $m\bar{a}$  a-sar- $n\bar{u}$   $ch\bar{u}$  a- $n\bar{a}i$ - $p\bar{a}$  ka- $n\bar{e}g$ - $\bar{a}$  ka- $s\bar{a}i$ , his sister that his brother than tall, his brother is taller than his sister. The position of ka- $n\bar{e}g$ - $\bar{a}$  is poculiar, and perhaps wrong. A Superlative seems to be formed by adding rak; thus,  $p\bar{u}n$ -ladir a-ka-tha-rak, cloth best. Another way of expressing the comparative and the superlative is illustrated in the list of words. Thus, inhi- $\bar{a}$   $a\bar{n}$ - $s\bar{a}ng$ , higher, lit., two among high; a-ka-tam- $a\bar{a}$   $a\bar{n}$ - $s\bar{a}ng$ , highest, lit., many-among high.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. They follow the noun they qualify. In in in-khat, etc., is probably a generic prefix. It is dropped in wai-khat, once, again. Inhi, two, seems to be written for in-nhi. Another generic prefix chēng is used with reference to money. Thus, dangkā cheng-nhi makhāi, rupees two and a-half.

**Pronouns.**—The following are the *Personal pronouns*:—Singular,—

kai, I. ka-tāng, ka, my. kai-si, mine. nang, thou.
nang-tōng, nang, na, thy.
nang-tō-si, thine.

a-mā, he. a-mā tōng, a-mā, a, his. a-mā-si, his.

Plural.—

kai-ni, we. kai-ni-tōng, our. kai-ni-si, ours. nang-ni, you.
nang-ni tōng, your.
nang-ni-si, yours.

an-mā-ni, they. an-māni-tōng, their. an-mā-ni-si, theirs.

There are no instances of the use of the possessive forms ending in tong. Tong probably means 'word.' The suffix si is probably identical with sik which occurs in nang-sik-a, you for, for your sake. Kai-si, mine, is therefore literally 'mc-for.'

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In the sentence had ahong-a ahong-a his skie apa nong-ta-rak, me to remaining this all yours is, all that I have is thine, we have another genius, nong-ta, thine. The suffix ta sused to form the pronouns imine, thine, one, in near other languages of this group. The ordinary suffixes and postpositions may be added to the personal pronouns; thus, nang-in apa-mak-chē, thou gavest-not; a-mā ahong-ā, him from. In the genitive the pronoun may apparently be repeated. Thus, a-mā a-sh-pān he his son.

The following Demonstrative pronouns occur:—hi, hi-wà, thus; khā, khā-wā, thut; khān or khān, that; a-mā, that. Hi may also be added to other words in order to emphasise them. Thus, kai-hi Pa-thōn nhông kā-hān-yō, I God to I-sinned. In the same way we also find chā added. Thus, kai-chā, I; nang-chā, thou; a-mā-chā, he; a-mā man-chā, its prize. Chā is probably a demonstrative pronoun; compare Relative pronouns, below. Khā is also added in a similar way; thus, a-mā-khā ka-nhag-a wā-i-nā rhāi wāng khit-rō, him well beating ropes with bind. The pronoun khan is sometimes used with the force of a definite article. Thus, a-sā-pa a-ū-pā khan, his son elder that, his son the elder.

There are no Relative pronouns. They are replaced by means of participles, or a demonstrative pronoun is used as a kind of correlative. Thus, kai nhëng-ā ko-om hi a-khëng-ā, me to being this all, all that I have; na-ral hingyā-hi ka-sā-pi nhëng a-pē-ā a-man-mhang na-sā-pā hi a-hōng-lē-chū nang-in bū nā-wai-hai, thy property all-this harlots to giving he-wasted-having thy-son this he-came-again-that thou rice thou-art-giving, as soon as this thy son who gave all thy property to harlots and wasted-it came back, thou art giving a feast; ka-pān ka-pūn thūm-hin lai-hi-chū hi-ē, my-father-by my-forefather-by story was-that is, this is the story told by my forefathers.

Interrogative pronouns.— $T\bar{u}$ - $m\bar{v}$ , who? hai- $m\bar{v}$ , what? hai- $y\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{v}$ , how many? Thus,  $t\bar{u}$ - $s\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{o}$ , whose son?

Indefinite pronouns.—Tū-tē, anyone.

Verbs:—Verbs are conjugated in person and number by means of pronominal prefixes. These are:—ka or  $k\bar{a}$ , I; kan or ka, we: na or  $n\bar{a}$ , thou; nan, na or  $n\bar{e}$ , you: a, he, she, it; an, they.

The prefixes are dropped in the imperative and before the prefixes a, in, ka, and  $k\bar{e}$ . The list of words indicates another way of distinguishing the person, and partly also the number, of the verb, by adding suffixes. The following are found:

First person:—ēng, plural ūng. Thus, kai kasē-yō-ēng, I went; kai-ni kasē-ūng, we go. Compare Present definite.

Second person:—chē, plural chai, chi, or choi. Thus, nang kasē-yō-chē, thou wentest; nang-ni kasē-chai, you go; nang-ni lai-ka-chang-chi, you were; nang-ni kasē-yō-chōi, you went.

Third person:—hai. Thus, a-mā kasē-yōng-hai, he went; an-mā-ni kasē-yō-hai, they went.

Some of these suffixes occur in the specimens. Thus,  $kathi-y\bar{v}-\bar{e}ng$ , I am dying;  $a-p\bar{v}-mak-ch\bar{v}$ , gavest not;  $a-s\bar{e}m-p\bar{v}k-hai$ , he divided-gave. Hai is rather frequent, and in one place it is also used after a verb in the second person singular. Thus,  $n\bar{u}-wai-hai$ , thou preparest. In a similar way  $\bar{e}ng$  refers to a subject of the third person in kai  $a-ni-w\bar{u}k-yo-cng$ , are ne-struck, I was struck. At the same time it is very improbable that these suffixes are really used as conjugational terminations; but the materials are not sufficient to ascertain their real meaning. Eng is identical with the suffix in,  $\bar{e}n$ , or  $\bar{e}ng$  which is used in Rängkhöl and connected dialects. The other suffixes are apparently demonstrative pronouns, added in order to emphasise.

With regard to certain other prefixes used before verbs, see prefixes and suffixes above. The root, either alone, or with the prefix ka, is freely used to denote the present and past times. Thus,  $na \cdot ka \cdot nh\bar{u}ng \cdot akhan \quad t\bar{v} \cdot s\bar{a} \cdot p\bar{a} \cdot m\bar{o} \quad k\bar{o} \cdot h\bar{o}ng$ , thee-behind that whose-son comes? whose son comes behind you?  $a \cdot m\bar{u}n \cdot s\bar{e} \quad a \cdot s\bar{e}r$ , he cattle grazing-is;  $a \cdot rh\bar{e}$ , he said, etc. An  $\bar{e}$  may be added, apparently without changing the meaning. Thus,  $hi \cdot \bar{e}$ , is,  $nung \cdot ch\bar{u} \cdot kai \cdot l\bar{e}$  hive  $\bar{a} \cdot t\bar{u}k \cdot \bar{a} \quad k\bar{o} \cdot \bar{e}m \cdot \bar{e} \cdot y\bar{u}$ , thou me-with this-long art-always;  $a \cdot ma \cdot y\bar{v}\cdot p \cdot \bar{e}$ , he kissed. Also  $l\bar{e}$  may be added. Thus,  $a \cdot h\bar{o}ng \cdot l\bar{e} \cdot ck\bar{u}$ , he coming, when he came. This  $l\bar{e}$  is perhaps identical with the postposition  $l\bar{e}$ , with; thus,  $a \cdot h\bar{o}ng \cdot l\bar{e}$ , his-coming-with. Hōng may then be considered as a verbal noun or participle. Compare the parallel use of leh and  $leh \cdot leh$  in Lushēi and connected languages. Lushēi leh also means 'again', and that is perhaps the meaning of  $l\bar{e}$  in  $a \cdot h\bar{o}ng \cdot l\bar{e}$ , and almost certainly of  $l\bar{e}$  in  $\bar{o} \cdot h\bar{o}ngin \cdot l\bar{e} \cdot y\bar{o}$ , he revived again.

Forms of the Present definite are: ka-thi-yō-ēng, I am dying; kain ka-lai-wūk-hi, I am beating. The corresponding Imperfect is kai ka-lai wūk-shai-yō, I was beating. None of these forms is characteristic for these tenses. Eng in ka-thi-yō-ēng has been mentioned above, and lai in the two other forms is identical with lāi and lā in Hallām, Aimol, Chiru, etc. Compare also Past tense, below. In kain ka-lai-wūk-hi, I am beating, the demonstrative hi is probably a verb substantive, and the literal translation would be 'me-by my-time-beating-is (takes place)', I am now beating. In kai ka-lai-wūk-shai-yō, I was beating, shai may correspond to shi, to be, in Zahao, Banjōgī, etc., and yō is the suffix of past tenses.

Past tense.—The suffix  $t\bar{a}$  occurs in  $a-s\bar{a}k-nh\bar{u}m-t\bar{a}$ , he-to-eat-wished. The usual suffix is  $y\bar{o}$ ; thus,  $a-s\bar{e}-pu-y\bar{o}$ , he went, or, he brought.  $Y\bar{o}$  seems to be nasalised in  $a-m\bar{a}ka-s\bar{e}-y\bar{o}ng-hai$ . he went;  $an-m\bar{a}-ni$   $ka-s\bar{e}-y\bar{o}n-hai$ , they went. It probably means something like 'finish,' complete' (compare Rāngkhōl  $j\bar{o}i$ ), and we may thus explain its use in other tenses; thus,  $ka-thi-y\bar{o}-\bar{e}ng$ , I am dying;  $ka-h\bar{o}i-\bar{a}\bar{o}m-y\bar{o}-ri$ , morry let-us-be (completely). The prefix lai has been mentioned above. Other instances of its use are:  $lai-ka-t\bar{a}ng-y\bar{o}$ , (the rice) became dear; a-lai-that, he killed.

The suffix of the Future seems to be sik or si, which should be compared with the postposition sik-ā, for. Thus, kain ka-voūk-si, I shall beat; nang-in na-voūk-si, thou wilt beat; kō-hōng-ri-sik, I will go and say. In kai ka-chang-sēng, I shall be, the suffix ēng seems to be added. This suffix seems to denote the future in ka-sē-ēng-ā, going (I will go and say). Compare Khongzāi kai chēng-ē, I will go, and similar forms in Hallām and other dialects.

The suffix of the *Imperative* is  $r\bar{v}$ , plural  $r\bar{u}$ , first person plural ri; thus,  $va-s\bar{e}r-\bar{v}$  (for  $va-s\bar{e}r-r\bar{v}$ ), tend;  $p\bar{e}-r\bar{v}$ , give;  $man-si-r\bar{u}$ , cause-you-(him)-to-put-on;  $\bar{v}m-y\bar{v}-ri$ , let-us-be. The forms  $ka-s\bar{e}$ , go;  $ka-s\bar{a}$ , eat, etc., in No. 77 and if., are probably verbal nouns. Compare Prefixes and suffixes, above.

The root alone, without any suffix, may be used as an Infinitive or Verbal noun. Thus, na-sā-pā chang ka-ma-tik-ē-mak-yō, thy-son to-by I-am-not-worthy; khang-sūk a-ka-lām an-lhing a-thē-yō, drum-beating (and) dancing-of sound he heard. The list of words gives sik-ā as the suffix of the infinitive; thus, chang-sik-ā, to be; wūk-sik-ā, to beat. It is evidently the infinitive of purpose; compare, ku-tim ku-rē-lē kan-ta-sak-sik-ā, my-friends my-companions-with our-feasting-for, that I might feast with my friends and companions. Compare Future, above.

Participles.—The root alone seems to be used as a Relative participle. The prefix ko is added in two of the instances which occur in the specimens. Thus, a-in-ā a-hōng-

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ting. Me-kouse-to de-coming-time-at performed by the properties of the class of the engine living man one to, the name who lived in that granter. In the case has been been as the future is used as a future relative quantifying thus associated for his association is as a second continued to be-received property, the property that I shall receive Carlo other process of the formed by adding the smilker a and sel. I may be added as the color above a-sā-pā ma-tām-pā khaz. 0-70-1 0-1 h- 205-3 13-43 76-44 # 24 " 1. 4 - 1 2/4 " 1 14 - 2 " + 1/2 " . The his-will younger that his-walth **கூர் ந**ு-வகுருந்து வெரும் நடி கொண்க a-sē-pu-yū. A-82-114-40-4 khangya a-man managging, a-rin he-went. He-gene-having his-wealth all he-west-decorage by

Further, ka-sē-ēng-ā kā-hōng-ri-tik. I go-wiil-and say-wiil. In words with as hōng-ka-sik-ā, coming out, the word sik seems to mean the come out, and to be quite different from the future suffix sik. Compare in-khat-in-khat tempelat-sik, mechy-one came out, and Lushēi chknak, to come out. The suffix nā forms conjunctive participles which seem to occur only in connection with the imperative (compare the if betan suffix la). In the singular an i, and in the plural an ū, is prefixed to nā. Thus, vai-t-nā khit-rō, beat-and bind; hōng-choi-ū-nā man-si-rā, bring-and put-on-lim.

A Noun of agency is formed by adding the suffix  $p\bar{a}$ . This must be concluded from the etymology given of the name Lai- $w\bar{o}n$ - $p\bar{a}$  in the second specimen, where it is said to mean 'he who wraps  $(w\bar{o}n)$  the tongue (ma-lai).'

The Passive voice does not differ from the active, but the subject is not distinct wished by the suffix of the agent. Thus,  $ka-fak-y\bar{v}$ , he was found again; kai  $a-mi-w\bar{u}k-y\bar{v}-cng$  me he-beat, I was beaten. The meaning of mi in a-mi cannot be ascertained.

Compound verbs are freely formed. Some of the prefixes used in them have been mentioned above. Hong denotes motion towards the speaker; thus, hong-choi, so bring here; wa seems to denote motion; thus wok wa-se-ro, pies go and toud. Consulties seem to be formed by prefixing man; thus, si, to wear; man-si, to cause to wear. Another causative seems to be formed by suffixing pu, perhaps corresponding to Lushei pui, to help, to assist. Thus, a-ran a-rhōn-ā ram ka-lhā in-khad-ā a-sē-pu-yō, his property he carried-and country far one-to he-brought. A-sē-pu-yō is translated 'he went,' but se alone is 'to go,' and ka-sē-yō, went. In pa-sē khan a-mā-chū a-lhai-pūk-ā a-tir-ā-ka-sīyō, man that him his-fields-to sent, a-tir-ā-ka-sē-yō, seems to mean 'he sending went.' and is probably not a causative. Desideratives are formed by adding nhim; thus, a-sāk-nhūm-tā, he-to-eat-wished. I cannot analyse in-ā rhūlō i-nūm-ka-dā, he dhi not wish to enter the house, but num in i-num is perhaps the same as nhom, to wish; rhūlō is probably an imperative, and the literal translation is perhaps 'house-in "enter" he-to-wish-refused.' Potentials are formed by adding ka-thā; thus, kain ka-wāk-ka-thā, I may beat. This ka-thā must be compared with thāi, to be able, to be allowed, in Hallam, and similar forms in other connected languages. It is different from ka-tha, good. Other compounds are formed by adding so, entirely; ya, always, etc.

The Negative particle is mak; thus, Karang-pān hūm-pūi kāp-mak, Karang-pa tiger does-not-shoot. In in-ā rhūlō inūm-ka-dā, he did not wish to enter into the house, ka-dā seems to correspond to the Meithei negative da. Compare, however, the corresponding passage in the Kolrēn specimen.

The Interrogative particle is mo. Compare Interrogative pronouns, above.

Adjectives are freely used as verbs; thus, ka-thē, (it-is) good; hi-nina Kūshmir ka-sē-hi hai-tuk-mō ka-lhā, here-from (to-)Kashmir to-go how-much far (is it)?

[No. 27.]

# TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

# KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

KOM.,

(STATE, MANIPUR.)

# SPECIMEN I.

(Babu Bisharup Singh, 1899.)

kār-khan inkhat sā-pā inhi kō-ōm. An-mā-ni inhi ma-tum-pa Them two from-amongst two were. younger Man one-(of) sons a-rhi. a-pā, kain ta-fāk-sik nainā a-sā-pā khan a-pā nhēng father, by-me to-be-received property his-father to said. that his-son a-pē-rō.' A-pān a-sā-pā inhi-ā nainā a-khēng-ā khan kai nhēng that to · give. His-father his-sons two-to property allme a-sēm-pēk-hai. Ka-ni a-ka-lhēk a-omā a-sā-pā ma-tūm-pā khan a-ran a-khēng-ā he-divided-gave. Days some remaining his-son younger that his-wealth ram ka-lhā in-khad-ā a-sē-pu-yō. A-sē-pu-yō-ā a-ka-ni-mak-a-tlō-ā a-ran carrying place distant he-went. Having-gone wickedly one-to wealth a-man-mang-sō-yō, akhēngā a-man-mang-sō-yō-ā ram akhan bũ hangyā all-that he-wasted-entirely, all he-having-wasted pla**ce** that-(in) rice ranhagā lai-ka-tāng-yō. Khan-tak-bā Amān amā a-nang-yō. aram-ā dear-became. he Hе very Thereupon distressed-was. that-place-in kö-öm inkhat ka-sē-ā pasē nhēng in-chun-yō-hai. Pasē khan. residing man one. to gone-having was-joined-together. Man that. wok wa-se-ro. a-ti a-mā-chū a-lhai-pūk-ā a-tir-ā-ka-sē-yō. Wok khlāi 'stoine pasture,' his-field-to saying him sent. Swine food khatak bakum a-sak-nhūm-tā tū-tē Höng nüm a-pē-mak-hai. that even he-to-eat-wished Sense any-one did-not-give. even ka-sing-yō-ā amān a-bing-rag-ā in-rhi-yō-ā, 'ka-pā shak nghai-in having-returned he himself-to 'father's said. servants many in-let-in-thèg-ā an-sāg-ā kö-ōm, kai-chū ka-won ka-tām-ā ka-thi-vo-eng. Kai abundantly eating live. hunger-in am-about-to-die. I I bellu nhēng ka-pā ka-sē-ēngā kö-höng-ri-sik, Pathen nhēng " ka-pā, kain my-futher to gone-having "father, I God to say-will, kā-lān-yō, na-māi-kūngam chang ka-ma-tikkā-lān-yō; na-să-pă have-done-wrong, you-before have-done-wrong; to-be I-worthyyour-son ē-mak-yö : kai na-shak Hi a-ti-ā in-khat ang-füngā a-dāpā-rō." ' no-more; saying me your-servant like keep." This one

nhêng kô-hông-yô a-mā a-pā A-ka-ll-a a-omi ล-เริก a-malli-a Distance-at he-remaining his-father to canic. he his-father reeing a-ma-tung-ka-si-ā, ka-tān-ā, a-lhak-ā a-ga-kūā, u-ma-yōp-ō. Khanh-khan a--ō-pān having-compassion, running, neck-on embracing, kiesed. Thereupon his-son Pathen phong nhēng a-rhiā, 'ka-pā, kai-hi ka-lan-yo, ka-pa him to said, father, I-this God to have-done-scrong, father na-sā-pā chang ka-ma-tik-ē-mak-yō.' Khanā-khan kā-lan-yō, na-māi-kūngam have-done-wrong, your-son to-be · I-worthy-no-more.' Thereupon nghai nhêng a-rhiā, 'pūn-ladir a-ka-tha-rak hong-choi-ū-nā a-shak a-pān servant many to said, ' garment test his-father bringing man-si-rū; a-kūd-ā kūtkhi inkhat man-nai-rū. ka-sā-pā nhēng a-ki-h put-on; his-hand-on ring his-feet-un put, a kēhūp man-nai-rū; ka-sā-pā hi a-ka-thi-ā, ō-hōng-in-lê-yō; a-mhang-yō-ā, my-son this died-having, has-become-alice; lost-having-been 84068 put; kā-mhū-vō: hi-ninā kai-ni \$#-in-i ka-hōiā wai-khad-ā for-this-reason found-has-been; eating-drinking merrily again we ōm-vō-ri.  $_{
m Hi}$ a-ti-ā an-mā-ni a-hōiā kō-ōm-yō-hai. let-us-remain. This saying they merrily remained.

Khawa-kan-akhan a-sa-pa a-u-pa khan lai-puka ko-om. A-man a-in-ū elder that field-in 1008. He his-house-to 8013 That-time-at a-ka-lām an-lhing a-thē-yō. A-mān a-shak-pā a-bikā, sük a-höng-ting khang in-coming drum beating dancing sound heard. He servant. calling, A-shak-pān a-ma-son-ā, ' na-nai-pa ' hai-mō-nē-tlōā?' a-ti-ā a-dēr-ā. 'your-brother answered. asked. His-servant 'what-you-do?' saying kō-hōng-yō, ka-rhing-ka-dam-ā hong-ka-sik-ā na-pān a-ning-ka-thā being-glad rice-(feast) having-come your-father alive-safe has-come. anhūkanā in-ā rhūlö thaiā a-sa-pa a-ũ-pă a-wai-hai.' Khawa-kha being-angry house-in enter his-8011 elder hearing This-word is-giving. a-ma-thēm. A-sa-pan a-sa-pa inūm-ka-dā. A-pā hai-ka-sik-ā entreated. His-sters his-80% His-father having-come-out he-wished-not. nang sik-å nang kum biwā-tukā hi nhēng a-ma-son, 'en-ro, for this you 300F so-long answered. · look. vears his-father to kā-makhē-tor-mak, kain töng wai-khat rigă. nang kā-tlò-ā sēpā. disobey-did-not. even I VOUF words in-doing onoe service ka-hōjā kan-ta-sāk-sik-ā kē ka-tim ka-rē-lē hin-tak-a-hin-ā nang-in you my-friends my-companions-with merrily goat to-eat neveribeless hing-yā-hi ka-sū-pi nhêng Na-ral a-pē-mak-chē. tē inkhat rügüm all-that harlot to Your-wealth have-not-given. young one even nang-in bū bi a-hong-le-chu a-man-mhang na-sā-pā rice-(feast) POB this on-coming who-had-wasted your-son kai-lē 'kn-sä. nang-chù a-tia. nā-wai-hai.' Khanā-khanā a-pāu me-with "mg-child. YON his-father said, are-giving. Thereupon 2 x 2

hiwā-tūkā kō-ōm-ēyā; kai nhēngā a-khēngā a-kō-ōm hi nang-tā-rūk. so-long live-always; me to remaining this all yours-also. hi a-yong-ka-thi-a, wai-khat ong-ka-rhing-yo; a-yong-hin-mang-a, Na-nāi-pā has-become-alive; Your-brother this having-died, againhaving-been-lost, ka-fak-yō, hiwayārhinā kai-ni ka-hōiā ka-ning-ka-thā ni-kō-ōm hes-been-found, this-reason-for we merrily gladlyto-live ka-tha.' it-is-proper.

[No. 28.]

## TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

KOM.

(STATE, MANIPUR.)

## SPECIMEN II.

### FOLK-LORE TAKEN FROM THE LIPS OF A KOM.

(Babu Bisharup Singh, 1899.)

Ka-pān ka-pan thum-hin lai-bi-chu hi-p. Ti-lāy-ā My-fathers-by my-furefathers-by that-eras-told this - se. **Pormerly** story ranai-a-riā lai-kō-ōm-bai. Khuba-ka-nhung-a an-má-ni kā-pūn ka-pān my-fathers my-forefathers ground-in Afterwarde they mere. a-lai-lbūā khūrpūi-ā inkhat-inkhat hong-ka-shik. Hārapūi inkhat Tiger lying-in-wait the-castle-in hole-through one-(by)-one came-out. a-si-ā höng-ka-sik-ä hūmpūi khan niye a-lai-that. Karang-pā pun-thé killed. Karangpa cloth-striped wearing on-conting-out tions that colour in-chang-hai. Sāichēpā kong-ka-sik-a hūmpūi a-kāb-ā. in-ang-ā a-ti-ā tim-rai tiger similar saying friendship made. Saichépa on-coming an-mā-ni a-ning-ka-thā yū ka-thi-yō. Hūmpūi khan ka-thi-ū Hümpüi khan wine that being-dead leing-glad died. Tiger they Tiger thatHūmpūi a-nād-ā Laiwonpā a-ma-lai lëmhë an-sāk-an-in-ā a-ning-ka-thai-yō. Laininpa tongue eating-drinking made-amusement. Tiger culting flesh Kbanā hūmpūi khanā Laiwonpa a-rön. a-dēr-ā a-won-ä. Laivonpā was-named. Therefore tiger therefore waist-cloth-in wrapped-up, Karangpān hūmpūi kāp-mak. Karang-pā tūng kafā ai-mak. does-not-shoot. till does-not-eat, Karangpä tiger Karangpā now

## FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

A piece of Kom folk-lore.

We learn from our ancestors, that our forefathers lived in the nether-world. Afterwards they came out one by one through a hole which is in the fort of Manipur. A tiger lay in wait and killed them as they issued. Karangpā¹ came out wearing a striped cloth, and the tiger, because it resembled his skin, made friends with him. Then Sāi-chēpā² came out, and he shot the tiger. The tiger died, and in joy thereat everyone drank wine, ate flesh, and rejoiced. Laiwonpā cut out the tiger's tongue and wrapped it in his waist cloth. Hence he was named Laiwonpā.² (On account of the old friendship) tigers still refrain from cating Karangpā's descendants, nor will they shoot tigers.

<sup>1</sup> The Manipuris call him Khibi. He is the progenitor of the Khibit class.

<sup>\*</sup> The Manipur's call him Angom.

Lai, the tongue; wen, to wrap up. He is called Khaman by the Maniparia.

### KYAU OR CHAW.

The Kyaus or Chaws are settled on the banks of the Koladyne. It is a very small tribe, and 'tradition says that they were offered as pagoda slaves by a pious queen of Arakan, named "Saw Ma Gyee," some three centuries back, when Arakanese influence and the tenets of Buddhism extended far higher up in the hills than the limits of our present control.' In features, dress, and appearance they are said to be hardly distinguishable from the lower class of the Bengali peasantry of Chittagong. They are, perhaps, Aryan half-breeds. Their language, however, is pure Tibeto-Burman, and is closely related to the Kuki dialects of Cachar and Hill Tipperah.

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SPEARMAN, H. R.,—The British Burma Gazetteer. Vol. i, Rangoon, 1880. Note on the Khyaw on p. 186. Hughes, Major W. Gwynne,—The Hill Tracts of Arakan. Rangoon, 1881. Note on the Chaws on p. 16. Eales, H. L.,—Report on the Census of Burma. Rangoon, 1892. Note on the Kyan or Chaw on p. 163.

Very little is known of the dialect spoken by the Chaws. The vocabularies published by Latter and Phayre show that it most closely agrees with Rangkhol and connected dialects, such as Hallam, Kom, and Langrong. Thus the word for 'cat' is meng in Chaw, Rāngkhōl, Hallām, Kōm, Langrong, and also in Khongzāi. 'Cow' is charrā in Chaw, which seems to correspond to Rangkhol shē-rhāt, Kom sē-rhāt, Hallam and Langrong se-rāt, while other connected languages have other forms; thus, Lushēi se-bang, Khongzāi  $b\bar{o}ng$ , Lai  $z\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{\imath}$ . The word for 'mother' occurs as  $n\bar{u}$  and  $n\bar{u}ng$ , which two forms also are used in Rangkhol. 'Woman' is n'pany, corresponding to nu-pany in Rangkhol, Hallam, and Langrong. N'rming is given as the word for 'name,' but probably means 'thy name,' the word for 'name' being rming. The initial r in this word recurs in Rangkhol is-ming, Kom ra-mhing, and Hallam ra-ming, while other connected languages have ming or mhing. The r in rming is a prefix while the form mhing represents a secondary development, the prefix being dropped before m. The word tshamak, bad, compared with atshā, good, shows that the negative particle is mak as in Rāngkhōl, Hallam, Kom, and Langrong; compare Rangkhol shāmāk, bad.

The few remarks on Chaw grammar which Lieutenant Latter has made in his article quoted above also show a close resemblance to the same dialects. The male suffix tsāl used to denote a male animal occurs in Rāngkhōl, Hallām, and Langrong, but also in other connected languages such as Lushēi, Banjōgī, Pānkhū, Lai, Khongzāi, etc. The Chaw numerals are of more interest. The first ordinals are:—

One khāt.	Six ō-rūk.
Two niek.	Seven s'rī.
Three t'hūm.	Eight rüet.
Four m'li.	Nine kō.
Five nga.	Ten tchūom.

Twenty tchūom niek.

Fifty tchūom nga.

Hundred r'za.

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The prefixes m and r in m'li and r'za are also used in Rångklad, Köm, and Hadlam. Shö has also the form mlhi, four, and Langrong rija-ka, hundred, while other dialects apparently use different prefixes. The suffix of the imperative is rau, i.e. ra. The corresponding suffix in Rångkhöl, Köm, Hallam, and Langrong is ra, which is, however, also used in other dialects such as Lushëi. Mhär, and Ranjägl. The suffix of the negative imperative is m'rau, apparently corresponding to Rångkhöl nb-rb. The negative particle is said to be ma, but the instances given in order to illustrate its use show that it is really mak or maing. These forms correspond to mak and maing in Rångkhöl, mak and maing in Hallam, mak in Kom, and mak in Langrong, etc.

None of these facts are conclusive, and the materials which are available are too scanty for definitively fixing the position of the Chaw dialect. But it seems probable that there is a close relation between Chaw on one side and Rangkhol, Hallam, Kom, Langrong, etc., on the other. The Chaws are believed to have been transferred to their present home in modern times, and they have probably formerly been settled farther to the north, in the neighbourhood of the tribes mentioned above.

### MHAR.

The Mhār dialect is spoken by about 2,000 individuals scattered over the different villages in the Northern Lushai Hills. There are no villages composed altogether of people speaking Mhār. The Mhārs have accepted the Dulien domination, but are said to have retained their own customs. Their name is also spelt *Hmar*, and may have something to do with the Chin word *mar*, which amongst the Hakas and other tribes is the name given to the Lushāis. In the Lushai Hills the word *Mhār* is used to denote immigrants from the Manipur State, and its proper meaning is said to be 'north.'

The Mhār dialect has been much influenced by Lushēi. There are, however, sufficient points of disagreement, and, on the whole, the dialect is more closely related to the Old Kuki sub-group than to Lushēi.

I am indebted to Major J. Shakespear, C.I.E., D.S.O., I.S.C., for a translation of the Parable of the Prodigal Son in Mhār, and this translation is the basis of the following attempt to describe the chief characteristics of the language.

Pronunciation.—There are no signs used in the specimen to denote long vowels, but we may infer from Lushēi that final vowels of words and syllables are long. An h after a vowel indicates that the sound is abruptly shortened. But the specimen is not consistent in the use of this h, and there seems to be some confusion also in other respects, especially with regard to the vowels o and \(\delta\), which latter sign denotes the sound of \(\alpha\) in the English word 'all.' Thus, we find the same words written le and leh; ni and nih; n\(\delta\) and noh; n\(\delta\) and nok; th\(\delta\) and thoh. Concurrent vowels are occasionally contracted; thus, pan for pa-in, by the father. A euphonic v is inserted between o and a following vowel; thus, deo-v-in, lo-v-a. The \(k\) in pek, to give, is generally silent. Mh\(\alpha\)r sh sometimes corresponds to Lush\(\delta\)i chh ; thus, sham, Lush\(\delta\)i chham, to run short; shang, R\(\alpha\)ngkh\(\delta\)l shang-pa, Lush\(\delta\)i chhang-bung, younger brother or sister, etc. But, on the other hand, shem, to divide, has the same form in Lush\(\delta\)i, etc.

Articles.—There are no articles in the language. In the first sentence of the specimen the indefinite pronoun tu-ma-nih, a certain, is used as an indefinite article, while pronominal prefixes, demonstrative pronouns, and relative phrases supply the place of a definite article. Thus, a-nao-pang-lem-in, the younger; se-báng te thao tak kha, cow young fat very that, the fatted calf.

Nouns.—Gender is only apparent in the case of animate nouns. The specimen contains two suffixes denoting gender, pa and pa-sal, both for the masculine gender. Thus, fa-pa, child male, son; mi-pa, man; nao-pasal, son. Names of animals seem to be neuter when no suffix denotes their gender. Thus vok, pigs, is combined with the singular pronominal prefix. See Verbs, below.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. The number of the subject is indicated by means of the pronominal prefixes preceding the verb. When it is necessary to indicate the plural the suffix hai is added; thus, suak-hai, slaves. Hai is identical with the plural suffix used in Rāngkhōl, Langrong, Chiru, etc.

Case.—The Nominative, the Accusative and the Dative are not distinguished by means of suffixes. The Genitive is denoted by putting the stem, without any suffix, before the governing word; thus, ro ka chan-tum, of the property my share. In nang-a mit-min, your eye-sight, a is suffixed to the pronoun. This a is the demonstrative pronoun of the third person; so also van-a mi, sky-its man, God, etc. The suffix in, denoting the agent, is added to the subject of a transitive verb; thus, a pa-n (i.e., pa-in),

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a ta, his father he said. No seems to be used instead of in in mi tu-na-ma-nih fa-pa pa-nhih a nei-a, man a certain sons two he had. Tu-ma-nih is the indefinite pronoun, and na seems to correspond to the Manipuri suffix na. Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions, such as a, in, to; chang-a, before, against; nhin, with, to; in, in; kuam-a, with, to; tiang, in, etc. Thus, lo-r-a, in the fields; kut-a, on the hand; mit-mhu-in, in the eye-sight. In and a are very common, and are often used to form locatives and adverbial expressions; thus, lhim-tak-in, joy great in, joyfully; na-sha-deo-v-in, trouble great in, intensely.

Adjectives.—Adjectives follow the noun they qualify, and postpositions are added to them and not to the qualified noun; thus, khua-lam la-tak-a, village far-very-to. The suffix of the comparative is lem; thus, nao-pang lem, younger; a-len lem, bigger. The superlative seems to be marked by adding tak, very; thus, puan tha tak, cloth good very, the best cloth.

Numerals.—The numerals follow the word they qualify. Pa-khat is 'one' and pa-nhih, two, both formed with the generic prefix pa. Other numerals do not occur. In seems to mean 'both.'

Pronouns.—The following Personal pronouns occur:—Singular,—

 kei, ka, I.
 i-ni, i, thou.
 a-ma, an, a, he, it.

 ka, my.
 nang-a, i, thy.
 a, his.

 ka-ta, mine.
 i-ta, thine.

 ka, mi, me.
 a, him.

ka, mi, me. Plural,—

kan, we.

as, they, their, them.

The forms ka; i-ni, i, an, a; kan, an, are used as pronominal prefixes with verbs, see below.

The following Demonstrative pronouns seem to occur, an, an—chu, this; ki, hi—hi, this; chu, chu—chun, chu-hai—chun, that; kha, ha, that. Ha only occurs after tak, with the same meaning as kha, and is perhaps only a miswriting.

There are no Relative pronouns. The demonstrative pronoun is used as a kind of correlative. Thus, ziang-tin kâm vok-in a bak kha, whatever food the pigs they ate, that; se-bâng-te thao (or a-thao) tak kha, calf fat very, that. A relative clause may also be formed by means of the noun of agency. Thus,—

i nao-pasal hi i sum bak-ral-vong-tu hi.
thy son this thy property ate-away-all-who this.

An Interrogative pronoun is is-ms, what? thus, chu is-ms ni-ta-leh, that what has happened?

The following Indefinite pronouns occur:—tu-ma-nih, a certain; iang-tim, some; siang-tin, whatever; tu-khom, anyone; iang-khom, anything; hai-khom, any.

Verbs.—Verbs are conjugated in person and number by means of pronominal prefixes. The following occur:—

ka, I; kan, we: i, thou: an, a, he; an, they.

When the subject is a neuter noun, the singular particle is also used in the plural. Thus vok-in a-bak, the pigs they atc. After in khom, anyone, the plural particle is used; thus, in-khom-in an-pe-noh-a, anyone they gave not. The prefix of the second person singular seems to be i-mi in i-mi pek-ngai-noh, thou to-give-consideredst-not. Ni is, however, perhaps a verbal prefix. Prefixes are dropped before the imperative and when the subject is an interrogative pronoun. In a-nao-passi s-len-lem lo-v-a om, the son

the-big-more fields-in was, the omission seems only to be apparent, the prefix a having been fused into one sound with the a of lo-v-a.

The root alone is used to denote present and past tenses; thus, a ni, he is; a ta, he said. The suffix a, probably a verb substantive, may be added. Thus, a tho-v-a a pa kuam-a a fe-tah-a, he arose (or arising) his father-to he went. Compare also conjunctive participle, below.

The suffix of *Past tenses* is ta or tah; thus, a fe-tah, he went. A kind of *Perfect* is effected by adding the verb substantive; thus, a hong-rhing-nok a ni, he came-alive-again it is, he has come alive again. This form implies that the action really took place. In the case of transitive verbs this mode of expression may convey the idea of passivity. In *lha-tak-a a-la-om-lai-in*, far-very he-was-time-at, a prefix *la* seems to give the force of the past time. Compare the corresponding forms in Aimol, etc.

The Future is formed by inserting the pronominal prefix between the root and the verb tih. Thus, va-rhil-ka-tih, I will go and say. In tho-ka-ta, I will arise, the final ta is contracted from ti-a. Compare the corresponding forms in Hallam, etc.

The suffix of the *Imperative* is *roh*, or *ro*, used both in the singular and in the plural; thus, *pe-roh*, give; *that-ro*, kill you. A first person plural is formed by prefixing *ei* to the future suffix *tih*; thus, *bak-ei-tih*, let us eat. Compare the corresponding form in Hallam, pp. 196 and f.

The root alone is also used as an Infinitive or Verbal noun. The pronominal prefix indicating the person may be prefixed. Thus, a-bak a-nuam-a, to eat he wished; lám-tak-a om a-tha, happily to-live that-good-is. To this form words are added to mark the connection with what follows, such as le, leh, and, when; phing-le, when; lai-in, lei-in, at the time, when. Thus, lha-tak-a a-la-om lai-in, far-very he-yet-was time-at, when he was yet very far off. The suffix ding, or ding-in, is used to form an infinitive of purpose. Thus, pe-ding-in, in order to give. In lám-na-ding, for rejoicing, this suffix is added to a verbal noun ending in na. Similar forms are used in Langrong, etc. Compare also a-ma-ding-in, for his sake.

A Participle used to replace the first of two connected imperatives is formed by adding the suffix la or lan, to which a pronominal element, denoting the person to which the participle refers, is prefixed. Thus, hang-la-un-lan that-ro, here-bringing-you kill.

Conjunctive and Adverbial participles are formed by adding the locative suffixes a and in. Thus, a khám-vong-a a fe-tah, he collecting he went; hong-tlung-tâm-in a hong-rhiat-a, heing-about-to-come-back he heard. Compare above.

A Noun of agency is formed by means of the suffix tu; thus, i nao-pasal i sum bak-ral-vong-tu, thy son thy property ate-up-all-who. See Relative pronouns, above.

There is no Passive voice. Instead of 'I am seen' we must say 'somebody saw me.' Thus, kan-mku-nok-ta a-nih, he has been seen again by us, lit. we saw him, again it is.

Compound verbs are formed by means of prefixes or by suffixing other verbs or particles. The following prefixes occur:—hang, signifying motion upwards, or towards; lo, signifying motion towards; and va, signifying motion on level ground. Thus, hangla, to go up and bring; lo-don, to answer; va-rhil, to go and say. Causatives are formed by suffixing tir; thus, hang-bun-tir-rok, cause him to put on. Desideratives are formed by suffixing nuam; thus, a loi-nuam-noh-a, he to enter-wished-not. Other words suffixed in order to form compound verbs are, nok or nik, again; shen, to be able to finish; tâm, to be about; tan, to begin; vong, all; zing, always; zo, completely, etc.

The Negative particle is ná, noh; thus, ni-shát-ná-tak-in, days-long-not-many-in; un pe-noh-a, they gave not. Compare the negative particle nō in Răngkhōl, Langrong, etc. In one place the negative lo, common in Lushōi, is used; thus, bak-shen-lo-v-a, to-est-finish-able-being-not.

# TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

# KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

## ·MHAR.

(LUSHAI HILLS.)

(Major J. Shakespear, C.I.E., D.S.O., I.S.C., 1900.)

Mi tu-na-ma-nih fa-pa pa-nhih nei-a. A-nao-pang-lem-in Man a-certain 8018 two ke had. The-young-more his 'Ka kuam-a. pa Da m ka chan-tum mi pe-roh,' 2 My father property-of father to. 999 W share give. ta. Chuang-chun 8 sum chu an in nhin shem-rel-a. 8 said. Thereupon kis goods that those both to he divided. Ni-shåt-nå-tak-in a-nao-pang-lem-in sum a-reng-in 8. kham-vong-a, Day-long-not-very-in the-young-more goods all he collected-all. khua-lam la tak-a 8 fe-tah. Chu khua chun-in hoi-ta-bek-in village-place far very-to he went. That village that-in comfortably-very sum chu a bo-mhang-ta-vong-a. A mhang-to-vong-le he lived, his goods that he away-spent-all. He spent-completely-all-schen that khua tiang chu na-sha-deo-vin an tam-a. bak-ding a tla-sham-a. Chuang-chun village in that trouble-great-in they hungered, eating-for he lacked. khua chun tu-kuam-am shin thoh-in a chu-hai va-thang. Chu mi-pa village that-of a-certain-with work that doing he went-stayed. That man chun vok thlai pe-ding-in tiang a thuai-a. 8 lo Ziang-tin that pig's food give-in-order-to his fields to ke sent. Whatever husks vok-in bak kha a-ma khom A a-puar-tak a-bak 8 nuam-a. they ate that hie belly the-pias il-full-very to-eat he wished. iang-khom tn-khom-in an pe-noh-a. A harh-nak-phing-le, became-sensible-again-when, anything He SHORE they gave-not. kuam-a sum-lha-hai · Ka DE bu bak-shen-lo-va nei an 'My father with servents rice to-est-finish-cannot got they many-very hi-lai-hin leh kei la-khi von-tam-in ka thi-vang-vang-a. Tho-ka-ta even this-time-this-in hunger-from I dio-shall. Arise-I-will-and and T "Ka ka ps knam-a va-rhil-ka-tih. D8 YAD-S mi chang-a lah go-tell-I-will, my father to "My father sky-of man before and iang-tin ka tha-shual, ka mbing nang-a mit-mhu-in i nao-pasal a-ring to-bear cye-sight-in something I did-verong, my name thy 30% tlak ka ni-noh. i kuam-a sum-lhah pa-khat ang-in mi shiam-ve-roh," like make-also." worthy I am-not, thee with 285 servani ONE

ting-ka-tih.' Chuang-chun a tho-va a pa kuam-a a fe-tah-a. Chuang-chun arose his father toThe eupon he went. Thereupon he say-I-will. a lo-mhu-a a khâ-ngai-a a tlan-a a lha-tak-a a ia-om-lai-in 8 pan far-very he-yet-was-time-at his father he pit**i**ed he ran his chest 8aw ħе a shuk-tua a fap-a. A kuam-a a nao-pasal-in, 'Ka pa van-a mi kuam-a 'My father sky-of man he embraced he kissed. Him to his son, iang-tin ka tha-shual. Ka mhing i leh nang-a mit-mhu-in nao-pasal something I Mу did-wrong. name thy eve-sight-in 80% and ka ni-noh.' Ni-khom-sian tlak 8 ta. 8 pan 8. suak-hai a-ring Nevertheless am-not,' he said. his father his slaves to-bear worthy I tak hang-la-un-la hang-choi-tir-roh. tha kha kuam-a. 'Puan good that here-bringing-you here-put-on-cause, ' Cloth veru to. phei-khok hang-bun-tir-roh. kut-sebi-hai. a khe-a se-bâng kut-a te boots here-put-on-cause. hand-rings, his feet-on hands-on cow young lhim-tak-in a-thao-tak ha hang-la-un-lan that-ro, bak-ei-tih. hi fat-very that here-bringing-you kill, joy-great-in . eat-us-let, this thi hong-rhing-nok a ni. ka nao-pasal hi 8 8. an mhang nhu kan this he dead-was he came-alive-again it is, he lost 200 nih.' mhu-nok-ta ta. Chuang-chun lhim-tak-in 8 8 an is.' asid. savo-agains it he Thereupon joy-great-in they om-tan-nok-ta-a.

to-be-commenced-again.

A nao-pasal a-len-lem lo-va om. In-a hong-tlung-tâm-in fields-in was. House-to come-arrive-about-being His 20% the-big-more iang-tin shut-ri le lam-tham an. a hong-rhiat-a. Chuang-chun masic-sound and their dance-noise heard. ke Thereupon suak tu-ma-nih . sham-a. \*Chu ia-ma ni-ta-leh? 2 ta a. zât-a. slave a-certain ke called, "That what happened? he said. he asked. ·I shang 8 hong-tlung-tah-a. him-tak-in a-mhu-lei-in i 'Thy younger-brother ke came-arrived. safely his-seeing-time-at the pan se-bang-te thao tak kha S. that, ta. Chuang-chun a fulker oalf fat very that ke billed. he said. Thereupon his shen-a lung in-s loi-nuam-noh-a, an 8 ps a hong-shuak-s heurs he heuted house-in he to-enter-wished-not, his father he come-looked-out thlom-a. Nih-man 201 knam-a Rhe-rob. 8 D& kum-kh4 persuaded. ke Neveribeless father his to. Lieten, always shin ka thoh-a hi-ang-chen-hi í i thu lakhi ka nhial-neai-noh-a. more-till-word thy work I did, thy word even I to-disobey-considered-not ka rual-hai kuam-a lam-na-ding kel hai-khom ini pek-ngai-noh. my friends with rejuicing-for goat any then to-give-consideredst-not. Chuang-chun i nao-pasal hi na-chi-mar kuam-a î sum bak-ral-vong-tu Therempon thy 2045 this harlots with thy goods atc-up-all-who

a-ma-ding-in se-bang-te thao kha i hi hong-fe-phing-leh tak this he back-went-when him-for calf fat that very thou lo-that-pek-zel-a,' 2 ta-lo-don-a. 'Ka nao-pasal ka to-be-killed-gavest-continuously,' said-back-answered. · My he 80n me kuam-a om-zing, an roh ka-ta poh chu i-ta vong an with thou livest-always, this property mine that thine all also this rih. Lhim tak le låm tak-a om tha an-nå certainly (?). Joy to-be great and happiness great-in it good-is this-for hi i shang hi a thi hong-rhing-nok 8 nih, an this died thy younger-brother this he came-alive-again iti8, he mhang-a mhu-nok-ta a nih, ta. kan 8 lost-was we saw-again it is,' he said.

## CHOTE, MUNTUK, AND KARUM.

Of these tribes only a few remnants are said to exist in the hills in and around the valley of Manipur. There are no specimens of the dialects available, but they are stated to belong to the Old Kuki stock.

#### AUTHORITIES-

McCulloch, Major W.,—Account of the Valley of Munnipore and of the Hill Tribes; with a comparative Vocabulary of the Munnipore and other Languages. Selections from the Records of the Government of India (Foreign Department). No. xxvii. Calcutta, 1859, pp. 64 and f.

DAMANT, G. H.,—Notes on the Locality and Population of the Tribes dwelling between the Brahmaputra and Ningthi Rivers. Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, New Series, Vol. xii, 1880, pp. 228 and ff. Note on Chohte, Muntuk and Karum on p. 238.

### PURUM.

The Pürüms are a small tribe in the hills around the valley of Manipur. There is also a small village in the valley, in the neighbourhood of Aimol. Their number is estimated to be between 500 and 1,000. Short notes on the tribe are found in the following:—

AUTHORITIES-

McCulloch, Major W.,—Account of the Valley of Munipore and of the Hill Tribes; with a Comparative Vocabulary of the Munipore and other Languages. Selections from the Records of the Government of India (Foreign Department). No. xxvii. Calcutta, 1859. Short note on the Poercoins on p. 65.

Danant, G. H.,—Notes on the Locality and Population of the Tribes dwelling between the Brahmaputra and Ningthi Rivers. Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, New Series. Vol. xii. 1880, pp. 228 and ff. Short note on Precommen p. 238.

Two specimens and a list of standard words and phrases have been prepared by Babu Bisharup Singh in the Pürüm village in the valley of Manipur. The dialect spoken in that village shows many traces of Meithei influence, especially in the vocabulary. It is, however, more closely connected with such languages as Hallam, Langrong, Rängkhöl, etc.

The remarks on the Purum dialect which follow are entirely based on the forms occurring in the specimens and in the list of words and are given with every reserve.

Pronunciation.—It is often almost impossible to state whether a vowel is long or short. U is always marked as long, and o as short, but both may certainly be either long or short. An accented final vowel is probably long, but is shortened when the stress is transferred to another syllable. This much may be inferred from forms such as arr-ha, good; but ha-no, bad; bak-a and bak-a, eating, etc. We have, however, no information as to where the stress should come, and the marking of long vowels by the original writer being rather inconsistent, it is impossible to state the rules for the shortening. I have, therefore, left forms such as bak-ā and bāk-a, eating, as I found them without making any attempt to introduce a consistent spelling throughout. Diphthongs occur very frequently, but they are, in most cases, interchangeable with single vowels. Thus, we find ma-nüi and ma-ni, they; ngãi and ngē, to wish; yaū, yo, and yūi, a suffix of the past tense; amoi and amo, the interrogative particle, etc. It is possible that some of these various spellings are attempts to denote the sounds o and s, but we are not able to make a definite statement. Y and w are euphonic after i,  $\tilde{e}$  and  $\tilde{e}$ , respectively. Thus, in  $t\tilde{e}$ -y- $\tilde{a}$ , house small in ; than-w-a, arising, etc. Hard and soft consonants are sometimes interchangeable. Thus, sa-nān-pā and sa-nān-bā, son; pi-nū and bi-nū, a female suffix; kai-ckū, I; mo-jū, he, etc. Compare the corresponding change in Meithei. S and y are apparently used alternatively in the suffix of the past tense, yes, yo, and sos, so. The same suffix is once also written cho. S is perhaps, in this case, written for s, y and s being interchangeable in many connected languages. L and r are sometimes interchangeable. Thus, rapa silver, lapa, rupee; lal, property, sa-ral, thy property; arr-kā and kol-kā, good. Compare Meithei, where r is substituted for I after a vowel. A final k is often silent; thus, sak and sa, slave; a-nok, no, but ha-no, good-not, bad; tik-ti, probably for tik-tik, most, etc. Kh and h are apparently interchangeable in the numeral a-khā, one. Comparo riyā-kā, hundred. The same interchange occurs in ar-kong-pā, cock, and nā-kū. this village, as compared with Kolrön arr-khong, cook, and khūo, village. Final r is sometimes doubled; thus, kūrr, ear; a-sarr-nū, sister; arr-hā and ar-hā, good, etc. A final ng seems often only to mark a nasal pronunciation of the preceding vowel. Thus, we find no and nong, not; chū and chūng, that.

We have no information with regard to tones in this dialect.

Prefixes and Suffixes.—There are apparently only few prefixes, and no suffixes used in the same otiose way as in the Nāgā languages. A is prefixed to nouns and adjectives; thus,  $a-p\bar{a}$ , a man;  $a-p\bar{a}-o$ , O father; a-hong, neck;  $a-l\bar{a}$ , far;  $a-n\bar{a}y-\bar{a}$ , near; a-tam, many. In  $arr-h\bar{a}$ , good, arr seems to be used in the same way. This prefix sometimes the possessive pronoun of the third person; thus,  $a-k\bar{u}t-\bar{a}$ , his-hand-on, but he usually been superseded as such by ma. A prefix beginning with k occurs in form such as ka-don, whatever;  $ko-t\bar{a}$ , saying; and  $kolh\bar{a}$  in kai  $ka-w\bar{e}l$   $kolh\bar{a}$ , I may strike Ma is usually the possessive pronoun of the third person, but is also used in a wide sense; thus, ma-khai, whatever; ma-tik, worthy, etc.

Articles.—There are no articles. The numeral a-khā, one, is used as an Indefinit article, while relative clauses, pronominal prefixes, and demonstrative pronouns suppl the place of a Definite article.

Nouns.—The prefixes a and ma which occur in the list of words before nouns of relationship are the possessive pronoun of the third person. Thus, a-sarr-nū, sister, /it. his sister; ma-namai, wife, lit. his woman. Compare, however, Prefixes and Suffixes, abov

Gender is only apparent in the case of animate beings and is only marked when i does not appear from the context. It is distinguished by means of suffixes, and, in the case of human beings, also by the use of different words. Thus, ma-pā, his father, ma-nū, his mother: a-pā, a man; namai, a woman: a-pā tē, a man young, a boy; nama tē, a girl. The usual suffixes, in the case of human beings, are pā, male, and nū, female Thus, sa-nāū-pā, son; sa-nāū-nū, daughter. In mi a-khā-pā, a man, the suffix pā is added to the numeral a-khā, one. The gender of animals is distinguished by the suffixes pā, a-pā, chal-pā, and tang-pā, for males, and namai, a-mai, pi-nū, and bi-nū, for females Thus, ār-hong-pā, a cock; sa-korr apā, a horse; sa-korr namai, a mare: sil chal-pā, a bull; sil a-mai, a cow: ūi tang-pā, a dog; ūi bi-nū, a bitch: kēl chal-pā, a he-goat; kēl pi-nū, a she-goat. The suffixes chal-pā, tang-pā, and pi-nū or bi-nū, are compound suffixes. Chal is a male suffix in Hallām, Langrong, and other dialects; tang is used alone in Kolrēn, and is probably identical with tong in haū-tong, a cat; pi or pūi is a very common female suffix in Meithei, Kolrēn, Siyin, Hallām, Langrong, etc. To these are added the suffixes pā and nū respectively.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. When it is necessary to denote the plural some word meaning 'all,' 'many,' etc., is added. Thus, iii tang-pē a-tam, dog male many, dogs; ma-sūk ngāi, his-slave many, his slaves.

Case.—The Nominative and Accusative do not require any suffix. To or dā is sometimes added to the object. Thus mo-to ri-yā, him seeing; chū-to ril-ā, this saying. It marks the personal object with causative verbs; thus, kai-to sē-lo no-sūk a-khā chang-pi, me hired thy-servant one to-be-cause; a-pā a-khā-dā ron-pi-so, man one to-wear-he-caused. Ning-ā, to, is used in the same way; thus, pūn arrhā choi-yā-fāw-ā sa-nāū ning-ā pāi-pi, cloth good carrying-coming son to to-wear-cause. To is also used with the meaning 'with'; thus, nang-chū kai-to am-hā-sāimē, thou me-with art-together; ka-than-rū-lā-to thēng-kā-ā, my friends with being-together. It seems to mean 'concerning,' 'towards,' 'for.' Compare Meithei dā, in, at, to.

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The suffix of the agent is not; thus, we reported marral same 20-100. His father bis-property divided. No is often added to the subject of an intransition with. Thus, ka-painoù in tê-yê was, my father house small-in is. This no is perhaps different word, and is probably the demonstrative premoun we, this.

The Genitive is expressed by putting the governed before the governing noun, without any suffix. Thus, so-know his him, horse this years, the years of this horse; no-ph in-h na-sa-with i-ye am-amo, thy father's house-in sons how-many are? how many sons are there in thy father's house?

The stem alone, or with an o added, is used as a Focative; thus ka-sa-māā, my son; a-pā-o, O father. Other relations are expressed by means of postpositions. Such are:—ā, in, to, with; hanā, in; kārā, from among; mā, before; ning-ā, to, from; nā-wā and nā-ting-ā, behind; nāng-ā, after; tā, with; thāyā, under, etc.

Adjectives.—Adjectives are often preceded by the prefix a; thus, a-lā, far; a-ngaŭ-pā, white. The suffix pā, forming relative participles, is often added. Thus, nāū-pang-pā, the younger; pām-nā-pā, all. When the adjectives are used as verbs the ordinary verbal suffixes are added. Thus, sāng-ē, he is high; kai-ko ka-chang ar-hā, I my-being good is, I may be; chām-so, it is proper. Adjectives usually follow, but sometimes also precede the noun they qualify. The postpositions kārā, from among, and ta, concerning, are used as particles of comparison, and tik or tik-ti may be added to the adjective. Thus, a-mo-nā arr-hā-tik-ti, he good-much-much, better; a-ni kārā nā-pāi sāng-tik, two from-among he high-much, higher; a-tam kārā mo-nā sāng-tik-ti, many from-among he high-much, highest; ma-nāū-nū ta-jū ma-nāū-pā-nā sāng-tik, his-sister concerning his-brother tall-much, his brother is taller than his sister.

The Numerals are given in the list of words. They follow the noun they qualify. There are no traces in the specimens of the use of generic prefixes.

Pronouns.—The following are the Personal pronouns :-

Singular,—

kai, I.nang, thou.amo, mo, he.ka, my.na, thy.a, ma, his.ka-tā, mine.nang-tā, na-tā, thine.ma-tā, his.

Plural,—

ka-ni, we. nang-ai, you. ma-ni, they. ka-ni-tā, our. nang-ai-tā, your. ma-ni, their.

Words such as  $ch\bar{u}$  or  $j\bar{u}$ , that; ko, that, also, are often added to the pronouns in order to emphasise them; thus, kai- $ch\bar{u}$ , I; mo- $j\bar{u}$ , he; kai-ko, I, etc. A suffix in is added to the nominative in a few instances in the list. Thus, kai-in chang  $f\bar{u}ring$ , I was; mo-n theng-song, he went. The possessive pronouns ka, my; na, thy; a and ma, his, are used in the genitive, but also the fuller forms. Thus, ka-tong, my word, of me; nang-tong, of thee. The forms ending in  $t\bar{a}$  are apparently used in the same way; thus, ma- $t\bar{a}$   $ta\bar{u}$ - $ta\bar{a}$ , his fields-to. The plural of the second person is nangai, i.e. nang-ngai. Ma- $n\bar{u}i$ , they, occurs in the specimen, but also ma-ni.

Demonstrative pronouns.—Hi and hi-ta, this; no, this, that; ha, ha-na, hao, and ma-

hā, that; chū and chū-ta, that; mo-ta, that; mā-nā, that.

There are no Relative pronouns. The suffix pā, which often is added to adjectives, belongs to a relative participle. But in most cases no suffix is added. Thus, nā ram-ā

an min-like-prother country to before once once on a work with accounting two parties broke the hunks which the piece of a constant and the end of a property to women to giving wasting the con, the constant was a constant to a constant the constant of th

Interrogation paramone.—1-th, that is wing, you are any easily they many? Thus, a-th se-rife-th, whose hop, a topal last a consensal took consense they during house-in sons how-many are find top and digital, that he as march 1.5 Another interrogative pronoun occurs in za-ming also digital, what is they came. I but I cannot analyse this sentence. The base of the interrogative promoun the is also used as an indefinite pronoun. Thus, the ake, anyone.

Verbs.—Verbs are not conjugated in person and number. Ka, my, and e, his, are in a few instances used before the verb in order of the person of the subject. Thus, ka-bak-ang, my-enting-for, in order that I should ent; ha-ma-tik-nl-yo, I-worthy-am-not; a-thiyang-sa, he was dead; a-mang-sa, he was lost. But such instances are very few.

Thus,  $n\tilde{a}$  i-yā am-amoi, this how-much is ?  $n\tilde{a}\tilde{b}$ -pang-pā ril, the younger said. The satifix  $\tilde{a}$ , which usually forms adverbial clauses and conjunctive participles, may be added, apparently without changing the meaning. Thus, hai-nā wel-ā, I strike;  $ch\tilde{a}p$ -ā, he kissed.  $\tilde{E}$  is used in the same way; thus, nang-chā kai-ta am-hā-sāim-ē, thou me-with art-together-always;  $lh\tilde{e}m$ -ē, he entreated. Yang and yēng are sometimes inserted before this  $\tilde{e}$ ; thus, piyang-ē, he is giving;  $thaiy\tilde{e}ng$ -ē, he heard. A suffix sā occurs in forms such as chang-sā, it is; a-thiyang-sā, he was dead; a-māng-sā, he was lost. It is perhaps identical with the suffix of the past tense. Sē or chē is added in a few instances; thus, nang thēng-song-sē, thou goest;  $\tilde{a}\tilde{a}k$ -pē-saā-sē, thou gavest a feast; nang-nā wēl-piyaā-chē, thou didst strike. It seems to be an assertive suffix, compare Burmese chhē (pronounced s'ā).

The usual suffix of the past is yaū, yo, or yāi. Thus, ngōi-ni-yaū and ngāi-ni-yo, herefused; tung-yūi(-yā), he-arrived(-when). In ku-ma-tik-ni-yo, I am no more worthy, it is used to denote the present time, the action being considered as an established fact. We often find san and so instead of you and yo. Thus, sû-lak-sau, they began to quarrel; thengso, he went. Soi in one instance is substituted for so; thus, tūla-am-soi, he joined. Cho in theng-pi-su-cho, they drove him away, seems to be identical with so. All these suffixes seem to be derived from a common source, probably a verb yau or zau, to finish, to complete. Compare Rangkhol joi. It is worth noting, however, that soi or soi is a sign of the past tense in Bodo languages. The s-suffix is, therefore, perhaps different from the y-suffix, and should be compared with the suffix sang in Lai, and song in Tibetan. Compare also Compound verbs, below. Other suffixes of the past are pi-yaū, pi-ya, pi-yang, si-yang, si-yā and sēng. Thus mo-na wēl-pi-yaū, he struck; ril-pi-yo, he said; ol-pi-yo, he fell in want; lāl-pi-yang-ē, I sinned; kai-nā wēl-pi-yang, I struck; tūk-sēr-si-yang, he was found again; thěng-si-yā, I have walked; kai thêng-sēng-ē, I went. Siyang, siyā and sēng seem to contain a verb si, perhaps meaning 'to be.' Compare Banjogi si and shi, to be. Piyau, piyo, and piyang seem to contain a verb pi. Pi means 'to give,' and is also used to form causatives. All these forms are, therefore, probably no real past tenses, but compound verbs. The same is probably the case with faring in kai-in chang-faring, I was, etc.

A Present Definite seems to be formed by adding ang or ing; thus, pi-yang-ë, he is giving; kui-na weil-song-ing, I am striking; and probably also kui theng-song-ing, I

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Then that about a training one of which India India then a finite thing, go; mini, put. A is consistence professed, then, we have not a section of miles with the marginal with a larger of the section of the professed by a section of the section of the marginal with the marginal of the section of the section of the section. The analysis of the section of the section of the section.

The foot class is the we die no displacement there is anne; thus, no-ra-non change have self-orders, the weather we to be an element to the die of the confidence, we to be merry to be appeal in discourage part. It is sone and as a field in disagrance law-of the past or completed in the confidence. It is sone and mention in a confidency name, and may be combined with prospeable to the mander to form advariable conserve. Thus, nong-of-ti-te and, days few reconstitutions after the angles for reconstitution of the last; in touchers, we confidence to his last; in touchers, we confidence to his last; in touchers, his confidence, his law managing-not-in, but my model to care. This last; in touchers, we confidence to his last; in touchers, we confidence to his line; in soon as he came; most one returned being an expectation of the list); a-la con-laya, for he increased, when his sone returned being accordance grander-of-his, in the list); a-la con-laya, for he increased, when his was early for a large finite grander, after he had wasted.

The such of the left life of purpose is any; compare Future. Thus, changing, to be; a-well-way, to strike; ke-bak-way, my-ending-for, in order that I might eat. The purpose may also be expressed in other mays. Thus, wok sel-o to se-pi-so, 'pirs tend,' saying he-sent; in this other poli-vi-yes. 'house enter,' saying he-wished-not; won kop-tik-ē to ning-ting-o-chas' belly I-fill-will' caying though-he-wished.

Participles.—The Relative participles have been mentioned in connection with Relative pronouns. The suffix  $p\bar{x}$  is also used to form a noun of agency; thus,  $p\bar{x}o-s\bar{e}l-b\bar{a}$ , sheep-tender, shepherd;  $la\bar{x}-\bar{y}-b\bar{a}$ , cultivator. The verbal noun with the suffix  $\bar{a}$  is used as an Adverbial and a Conjunctive participle. Thus,  $n\bar{x}ny\bar{a}l-y\bar{a}$  woi-yo, happily let us-remain; wel- $\bar{a}$  a-h $\bar{u}$ , beating bind, beat and bind. The form  $t\bar{a}$ , saying, is perhaps a contraction from  $t\bar{a}-\bar{a}$  or  $t\bar{i}-\bar{a}$ . The list of words farnishes chang-ang-nong, being, having been, and theng-su-so, gone. The latter form seems to be the past tense, perhaps used as a relative participle.

There is no Passive voice. Kai-to wêl-ê, I am struck, literally means 'me-concerning striking-takes-place.' I-ti in kai-to wêl-ang-i-ti, I shall be struck, seems to be connected with the ti which is used in the formation of the future in Hallam and connected dialects.

Compound verbs are freely formed in order to modify the meaning of the principal verb. Both verbs are sometimes inflected. Thus,  $t\bar{a}n$ -a- $l\bar{u}t$ -a, running-entering, running towards; choi- $y\bar{a}$ - $f\bar{a}v\bar{a}$ , carrying-coming, bringing;  $hiy\bar{a}$ - $k\bar{c}$ - $y\bar{a}$ , doing. In most cases, however, only one suffix is added. Thus,  $w\bar{a}$ -kat-so, they-went-complained;  $l\bar{a}$ -tin-pi-so, totake-bring-caused, caused to be brought, etc. The verb pi, to give, forma Causatives.

Thus, chang-pi. to-be-cause, appoint; ron-pi-so, he caused to be carried; māng-pi, he wasted, etc.  $Ng\tilde{e}$ , which seems to be identical with  $ng\tilde{a}i$ , forms Desideratives. Thus,  $l\tilde{a}im\tilde{a}$   $l\tilde{a}$ - $ng\tilde{e}$ - $t\tilde{a}$  am- $h\tilde{a}$  a- $p\tilde{a}$   $h\tilde{a}$ , a little take-wishing-with being-together man that, that man in the presence of him who claimed a little. Other words added in order to form compound verbs are  $h\tilde{u}$ , together;  $l\tilde{a}k$ , begin;  $s\tilde{e}r$ , back, again. I cannot ascertain the meaning of  $s\tilde{u}$ ,  $s\tilde{u}k$ ,  $s\tilde{u}ng$ , and song, in forms such as:—sam- $s\tilde{u}$ -so, he divided;  $la\tilde{u}$ -sing- $s\tilde{u}k$ -so, his-mind-wise-became; am- $s\tilde{u}ng$ , it remains; mo  $th\tilde{e}ng$ -song, he goes, he went, etc. Compare, however, the suffix of the past tense.

The Negative particle is ni; thus,  $ng\bar{a}i$ -ni-yo, he wished-not. It is used as a verb in  $l\bar{a}im\bar{a}$  ni- $ya\bar{u}$ - $w\bar{e}$ , a-little is-not, it is not sufficient. Ni seems always to be followed by the suffix  $ya\bar{u}$  or yo, and the forms no, nok, and nong, are used when this suffix is wanting. They seem to contain a negative prefix n, which is identical with ni, and a verb substantive o, ok, or ong. Compare Introduction, p. 19, and the Tibetan affirmative suffix o. No, nok, nong, occur in words such as: $-p\bar{e}$ -no, thou gavest-not;  $\bar{a}$ -nok, no; yoi-no- $\bar{e}$ -nong, I disobeyed not, etc.

The Interrogative participle is a-moi, a-mo, or mo.

Order of Words.—The usual order of words is subject, direct object, indirect object, verb.

[No. 30.]

# TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUMBOHIN GROUP.

PURCM.

# SPECIMEN !

STATE, MANIPUR.)

## (Babu Bisharup Singh, 1899.)

akhā-pā sa-nāū-pā ani am-ē. Ma-nai ani kan niu-pang-pa Men One 80n8 two were. They m tien trouberrongal younger ma-pā ningā ril, ' ama-... 是我一些人的人。 · 我们是一个家的一个 lal-tham his-father to said, father-0, no year new for the property hāo kai-ta pēvo.' Ma-pā-nā ma-ral 35 (2003-14)6-1-6 201 5-21 (61 ani ningā that to-me give. His-father his-wealth 212 them tuco to sam-sū-so. Rūng-ni titē ma-sa-nau-ya nau-pang-pa-na ma-ra! pum-na-pa am-ä divided. Days some remaining his->on younger his-scealth ronā ram a-lā akhā theng-so; na ram-hana oknawa ma-ral carrying place distant one-(to) went; thut piace-in wickedly his-wealth pūm-nā-pā hāū-sū-so. Lal pũm-nã-pã háű-sű-nűugá nā ram flung. Wealth all having-been-thrown-away that place hanā bū a-tam tānga, nänä TOO ol-pi-yo. Mo-nā nã in very became-dear, and he became-wretched. He that ram-ā am  $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{i}$ akhā-pā ningā theng-ā tula-am-soi. Nămă place-in living man 046 to going was-joined-with. That mi-nä wok aēlo tā mo-ta ma-tā laū-wā sē-pi-so. Mo-nā wak man-by swine tend saying him his field-to sent. He (by) awine bāk 88 Wāi lūko bak-ā won hop-tik-ë ning-ting-achaŭ tā which-was-eaten husks even-that eating belly will-fill saying although-wished tū-a-khā-nā pē-ni-yo. Tun-chau lau-sing 80k-so mo-nā any-one-by it-was-not-given. Now 36 H 36 having-come Àe. ril-pi-yo, 'ka-pā ngāi-na lūko lēm-bong-pā-bong bāk-so, sük kai-chū said, 'my-father servants many even in-abundance are-eating, I-whereas ka-won tām-ā thi-yang-si-yang. Kai ka-pā ningā thông-ā ril-thing-tik-k, my-belly hunger-in am-dging. I my father to going will-say, kai Thāirū ningā lāl-piyang-ē, na-ningā-ko lāl-piyang-ē;  $oldsymbol{I}$  God to have-dene-wrong, you-to-also have-done-wrong; kai na-sa-nāŭ ohang ka-ma-tik-ni-ya; kai-ta sölo na-sük akhā chang-pi." I your-child to-be worthy-um-not; me hired your-servant one be-let." Mo-nā thanwā ma-pā ningā fāū-so, a-lā am-lēy-ā ma-pā-na me-ta riya, ericing his-father to same, far being-time-at his-father him seeing, a-lang-si-yā, tān-a-lūti-n, n-hong kol-ā, chup-a. Ma-m-nau-pa-na ma-pa having-companion, running, noch embracing, kiesed. His-son bis-felber

'apa-o, kai Thaira-ninga lauphyung-o na-ma-ko ningā Til-50, Jother-O. I eaid, Gud to Lawrence on the governmented lal-piyang-e. na-sa-naa chang ka-no-tik-ne-jod Na-na Kai have-done-wrong. your-child to-be worthy amount. Thereupon his-fither I ma-sak ngāi niogā ril-so, nuu arria choi, h-mwa sa-naa ainea his-servants allto \*garments eaid, best beinging child to pāi-pi: a-kūt-ā kūt-sahik a-khā nai-pi, ma-ka-ya khongûp bûr-pi; p 166-018 : his-hand-on ring one put, his-feel-on whom put; ka-sa-nāā ha-nā a-thiyang-sā, thaibak ring-ser-n-so-chau; a-mang-sā, my-child this had-been-dead, again has-been-ulice-as; had-been-lost, tük-ser-siyang; ka-ni bak-a in-ā nungaiya-woi-yo. Hi-ta ril-ā has-been-found; we disnking merry-let-un-remain. eating This saying ma-ni nūngāi-so-wē. they rejoiced.

Nāriyā kālā ma-sa-nāŭ û-liên-pâ laŭ-wā am. Ma-in-ā That time-at his-child hi-ta elder field-in His-house-to was. this hongā hūng-sūwā lām-a tarā thai-yeng-e. Mo-nā ma-sük akhā drum-beating dancing sound coming heard.  $II_{\mathcal{C}}$ his-servant one kokā, 'i-yē-amoi?' ril-ā sāyā. Nā-nā ma-sūk-nā calling, 'what-is-the-matter?' saying asked. sang-ē. Thereupon his-servant-by replied, 'na-näū-pā lē-so-wē. Ma-sa-nāū nā-no-sā-no-wā lē-yaū-lē-chū your-brother has-returned. His-child illness-without na-pā-nā on-returning your-father Ьŭ piyang-ē.' Nā-chū thai-yā mo-nā a-lûng-sā in-luto feast tā is-giving. This hearing he being-angry house-enter saying agāi-ni-yaŭ. Nā-chū-sērūk-ā ma-pā-nā sūk-ā mo-ta lhēm-ē. vished-not. Nā-nā Therefore his-father coming-out him entreated. Thereupon mo-nā ma-pā ningā sang-ë, an, kūm hichan na-sipā he his-father hiyākēyā to answered, 'look, so-long your-service in-doing years tai-nā na-tong khak yoi-no-ë-nong; chū-ma-hakan ka-ton-pi ka-than-rūlē-tā I your-words ever have-not-disobeyed; nevertheless my-friends companions thēng-hā-ā nūng-āiyē ka-bak-ang nang-nā kēl tē akhā lūko bāk ogether-with merrily to-eat y0# goat young one even eat saying na-ral na-thūm pūm-nā-pā namai ningā pē-yā une-not-given: your-goods your-property mang-pi, woman all to by-giving wasted, ıa-sa-nāŭ nā-hā fāŭ-yaŭ-lē-chū pāntrā bāk-pē-saū-sē.' your-child this Nā-nā ma-pā-nā on-coming feast to-cat-you-gave.' Thereupon ril-ā, 'ka-m-nāŭ, nang-chū his father kai-ta nitiyā am-hā-sāimē. \*my-child, you indeed me-with always live-together, ka-tā ka-don said, mine whatever-is pum-nā-pā na-tā chak. Na-nāŭ-pā ha-nā thi-thong-a, thai-bak all ring-ser-a: **Hours** Your-brother is. this having-died, again being-alive: mang-thong-it. tük-ä: ka-ni ทนิทะนี้น้ำ having-been-lost, being-found; we to-be-merry to-be-glad chūm-so. il-is-proper.

# TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

### POR CALL

# SPECIMEN II,

# FOLK-TALE TAKEN FROM THE LIPS OF A PURUM.

STATE MANAGERA

(Beba Bisharup Singh, 1819.)

1-100 nkini mil-just 71-110-9/3. \* wing 17210271 Man a certain his-load being-unable-to-carry, 'paddy some for a little) will-give san. ka-por Fil-is 16-1-31 a-kha-da ron-Di-M. Marin man (another)-one made-to-carry (it). my-load assist. saying. 11:5-1.3782 tung-yűi-ya sāng kaithilük a-khā ne-ya. · laima mi-vaid-wa. on-arriving-at paddy busket on-giving. CMC \*some (or a-little) it-is-det." ngāi-ni-yo. Nā-nā-chā ma-nūi sû-lik-saû. Ruisang-a W5-kat--... suging refused. Therefrom they began-to-quarrel. Court in went-complained. rūi-sang-ā nā Nā-nā sing Li-tin-pi-so. Lii-mi la-ngi-ta ordered-to-be-brought. court that Thereapon. paddy A-little coho el simed hā amha a-pā säng chung hāū a-khi thal-pi-va thai-bak in-continuance man that paddy that bag one (in) putting-in agašu sung-ser-a. Ti-te-te chak-ā rūi-sangai, 'nā iyā am-amoi.' took-out. A-little when-remained (in the bag) court, that school is-remaining, tā sāvā. Nā-nā apā chū-nā 'lāimā am-sung. ril-so: 'na-dit that 'a-little is-remaining,' asked. Thereupon said: 'you-reart saving . 774073 hā chang-sā'; ril-ä 'theng-o.' läimä nang chū-tā a-little this: yours is ': this egying. 'go-away.' saying rūisangai-nā mo-tā thēng-pi-sū-cho. him court drove-away.

#### FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Once upon a time there was a man who was not able to carry his load. So he got another to carry it, having promised to give him some paddy in return. On coming home he then gave him a basket. The other, however, refused to accept it saying that it was nothing. They began to quarrel, and went to complain in Court. The Court ordered the paddy to be brought, and the man who claimed some paddy was asked to put it in a bag, and then to take it out again. When only a little was left in the bag, the Court asked him what was left. He answered, 'something is left.' The Court then said, 'the something you claim is here, and you may take it,' and then turned him out.

### ANĀL.

The Anals are a small tribe living in the hills on the east of the Manipur valley. Their chief village is Anal in the south-east. It is stated that they belong to a set of tribes whose populations vary between 500 and 1,000 souls each. Major McCulloch has given the following account of the tribe:—

'The whole of the people in a large tract in the south-east have received the name of Anal-Namfan from the two largest villages amongst them. These people say they came from a position south of their present ane, and they celebrate in their songs the beauties of the land of their origin. In personal appearance they are much like Khongjais, with whom, though they are at deadly fend, they appear to have affinity. The Anals, in more immediate connection with Munnipore, have been corrupted so far as to have given up many of their former customs. They have now no longer amongst them hereditary chiefs, but the villages in the interior retain their old habits and hereditary heads. Their houses are made like those of the Khongjais, and in their social usages there is but little difference. From its birth every male child is called "moté," and every female one "keenoo." their ears are pierced at the annual festival for this purpose, and a distinguishing name is added to the moté or keenoo, but for this there does not appear to be any fixed time, or particularity as to the name to be given. Their marriages are effected much in the same way as those of the Khongjais. After the first application for their daughter, if the parents consent and drink of the wine brought, the young man goes to the girl's father's house as accepted husband. After this the young man, four different times, feasts the bride's family. At the fourth time they settle what is to be given finally for the girl; the rich giving according to their means, and the poorer according to theirs, not less however than a pig and a piece of iron one cubit long. The want of eye-brows and eye-lashes is amongst this people admired, and the young men to render themselves attractive carefully extract them.'

#### AUTHORITIES-

McCulloch, Major W.,—Account of the Valley of Munnipore and of the Hill Tribes; with a Comparative Vocabulary of the Hunnipore and other Languages. Selections from the Records of the Government of India. (Foreign Department.) No. xxvii. Calcutta 1859. Account of the Anal-Namfau tribe on p. 64; Vocabularies, Anal-Namfau, etc., Appendix, pp. vii. and ff.

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The name of the tribe, Anal, is that under which it is known to the Manipuris. Major McCulloch states that the hill tribes have also distinctive names of their own, but we have no information about these names.

Two specimens and a list of standard words and phrases have been received from Manipur. They are all due to Babu Bisharup Singh. The first specimen, a translation of the Parable of the Prodigal Son, is to a great extent mixed up with Meithei forms, and this latter language seems to have largely influenced the Anāl dialect. The second specimen, a war-song, exhibits a much purer language. But there are several mistakes in the translation, and it has not, therefore, been possible to analyse it throughout. The remarks on Anāl grammar which follow are entirely based on the texts just mentioned and are given with every reserve.

Pronunciation.—The marking of long vowels is not consistent. Thus, we find fa-na, has been found; but fa-rang, to be found; ka-pē-mā-nā, gave not; but rho-ma-nā, wished not. A is interchangeable with i in the negative particle; thus, tha-mi, goodnot, bad; but ikopi-nā-mā-nā, ill-not-being. We find ē and ā in chērā and chārā, small. The word charā, child, probably represents a third form of the same word. Compare ka-da-bē and dē-nā, saying. Ai and ē are interchanged in ma-khai and ma-khē, whatever. I seems to be written for ē in wonichā, the-two-brothers-for. This compound seems to contain the words wo, elder brother, and nē, younger brother. McCulloch gives o for

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There are several instances of interchange between hard and soft corresponds a thur, ha-ran-ba-ka, to rejoice; nang-pa-ka, tell in want a hang-ga and hang-ka from; de and the, to say, etc. R and I are interchangeable in expet or Wyer, ruger, where R is there haps written for w in a-thie-be, he; compare a-shorted, was, etc. Should then a happy used in the meaning 'field.' M and a are sometimes interchanged; thus, elementarial and wang-chom-na, having gone; em and in, house. The form em, house, seems to be due to the influence of Meithei. There is also some uncertainty in the writing of aspirated letters. For instance, in the suffix rong and rhong both are used in exactly the same way; thus, ni ka-na fa-rang mem, me with to-be-had property, the property which I shall get; wa cha-rhang che-we, pigs-by to be-eaten husks, the husks which the pigs got to cat. Ng has apparently often a very faint sound, and is occasionally dropped; thus, wang, wan, and wa, come; ang-ga and an-ka, was; a-nu, being; thiu-ga-ning and thiung-ga-ni, I shall be, etc. It is often difficult to state which sound is meant when w is written. Thus, we find wane, and a-ne, the younger brother. These inconsistencies are perhaps partly due to inaccuracy, but it is also possible that the pronunciation is rather indistinct.

Articles.—There are no articles. The numeral  $kh\bar{v}$ , one, is often used as an indefinite article, while definiteness is marked by using relative clauses or demonstrative pronouns.

Nouns.—Nouns denoting relationship and parts of the body are usually preceded by a possessive pronoun. Thus,  $ka-n\tilde{e}$ , brother, lit. my brother;  $ka-k\tilde{u}$ , hand, lit. my hand. The pronoun ma, his, seems to have a wider use. Thus, we find  $ma-r\tilde{u}p$   $ma-p\tilde{u}ng$ , my friends my companions, in the Parable. Ma is also used as a prefix in adjectives and nouns, just as in Meithei. Thus, ma-tam, time;  $ma-tomb\tilde{u}$ , young, etc. The prefix a is also often used; thus,  $a-n\tilde{e}$  and  $wa-n\tilde{e}$ , thy-younger brother;  $a-p\tilde{a}$ , thy father;  $a-b\tilde{e}-n\tilde{u}$ , sound;  $a-ch\tilde{e}r\tilde{a}$ , young; a-mi-nai, slave; a-ni, day, etc. In one place we find ka used in a similar way, in  $ka-p\tilde{a}$  kong-ki  $s\tilde{e}l-li-n\tilde{u}$  ka-mi-nai, my-father with-from wages-taking servants, my father's hired servants.

Gender.—Gender is only apparent in the case of animate beings. The gender of human beings is often distinguished by means of different words. Thus,  $p\bar{a}$ , father; no, mother:  $n\bar{e}$ , brother; achalo, sister. In  $s\bar{e}n-p\bar{a}$ , man;  $s\bar{e}-n\bar{u}$ , woman, we find the suffixes  $p\bar{a}$ , male, and  $n\bar{u}$ , female, well known from most Kuki-Chin languages.  $S\bar{e}n-p\bar{a}$  and  $s\bar{e}-n\bar{u}$  are also used in order to distinguish the gender of human beings. Thus,  $s\bar{e}n-p\bar{a}$  charā, son, boy;  $s\bar{e}-n\bar{u}$  charā, daughter, girl. The gender of animals is denoted by adding patal, male, and  $an\bar{u}$  or  $n\bar{u}$ , female; thus, sakol patal, a horse; sakol  $an\bar{u}$ , a cow: vi patal, a dog; vi  $n\bar{u}$ , a bitch.

Number.—The usual suffix of the plural is hing; thus, mi-nai hing, servants. Other words meaning 'many', 'all', etc., can also be used in the same way; thus, kėl nhīm-kā, goat many, goats.

Case.—There is apparently no suffix denoting the agent. The suffix to is sometimes added to the subject as well as to the object. Thus, a-mā-to ma-pā kūng-hā pa-thang-nū, he his father to answered; ma-pā ma charā-to panhēn-nū, his father his son entreated. Compare the corresponding suffix ta in Pūrūm. The Genitive is sometimes denoted by putting the governed before the governing noun; thus a-pā in-thūng, thy (?) father's house-in; sakol hai-bē kūm, horse this year, the years of this horse. But more generally the suffix gi or ki, from, which is common in Meithei, is added. Thus, a-mā khū-gi tūkal. that village of a shopkeeper, a shopkeeper of the village. Sometimes a demonstrative

pronoun is also prefixed to the governing noun. Thus, mi  $kh\bar{e}$ -gi ma- $char\bar{a}$ , man one-of his-sons;  $m\bar{e}m$ -gi ma-khai, property of whatever. The suffix ki or gi seems also to mean 'from'; thus, a-si-ni-ki, this-day-from. The Vocative is generally expressed without adding any prefix or suffix. Thus, ka- $p\bar{a}$ , my father. But we also find the suffix or interjection o added; thus, ka- $char\bar{a}$ -o, my son. Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are:— $h\bar{a}$ , to, in; ka- $d\bar{u}$ - $h\bar{a}$ , before (me); ka-thal- $h\bar{a}$ , behind (me);  $k\bar{u}ng$ , to;  $k\bar{u}ng$ - $h\bar{a}$ , towards, to;  $l\bar{e}$ , in;  $h\bar{e}ni$ , under;  $th\bar{u}ng$ , in;  $th\bar{u}ng$ -gi, from;  $u\bar{a}$ , with, by means of, etc.

Adjectives.—Adjectives sometimes precede and sometimes follow the word they qualify; thus, i-thā sēn-pā khē, good man one; kēl achērā, goat young; ma-charā ma-rhēm, his son the elder. The ordinary verbal suffixes are often added; thus, bū tha-tang-nū, cloth best being, the best cloth: ama-nhi chā-kē amā-hi tha-kā, these-two among-from he good-is, better. The word ma-tom-ba, younger, is perhaps borrowed from Meithei a-tom-bā. The suffix hā seems to form adverbs of place or time; thus, hūlā-hā, near; hai-so-hà and han-so-hā, far off, at a distance; but hai-so-wā-kā, far. The suffix mā seems to be used in a similar way; thus ma-lang-mā, wickedly; ido-mā, very; in-tē-tē-mā, always. I cannot properly analyse the clauses illustrating the use of the Comparative and the Superlative. In ama-nhi chākē amā-hi sāng-gā, higher, chā-kē seems to contain the postposition  $k\bar{e}$ , for ki, from. Chā seems to mean 'among,' 'between'; compare wo-ni-chā, between the two brothers. The whole clause, therefore, perhaps means 'them-two from-among he tall-is'. In a-mā chal hēlē wa-nē amān-chēlē sāng-kā, his younger-sister than his-younger-brother taller, I cannot analyse the words hele and amān-chēlē. In the superlative we find bū tha-tang-nū, the best cloth, lit. probably 'cloth good-very-being'; hūyā-pāng kālhi sāng-gā, highest, lit. probably 'those-many among high.' The word kālhi does not, however, occur in other places so that its meaning is uncertain.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. They follow the noun they qualify. McCulloch gives aya-khet instead of  $ay\bar{a}-kh\bar{e}$ , one hundred, and lising khet thousand. From these forms we infer that the numeral  $kh\bar{e}$ , one, is derived from khet. There are no instances of the use of  $\bar{a}to$ , one.

**Pronouns.**—The following are the *Personal pronouns*:—Singular,—

ni, I.nang, thou.a-mā, he.ni, ka, my.nang, na, thy.a-mā, a, his.ni ka, mine.nang, thine.

Plural,—

ni-hing, we. nang-hing, you. a-mā-hing, they.

Several suffixes seem to be added in order to emphasise. Thus, ni- $b\bar{e}$ , I; nang- $b\bar{e}$ , thou; ma- $d\bar{a}$ , he; ni-hing-to, we;  $am\bar{a}$ -hi and  $am\bar{a}$ - $h\bar{e}$ , he, etc. The list of words furnishes forms such as ni ka- $p\bar{e}$ , of me. The literal translation is probably 'my word.' McCulloch gives the forms ni-ga, mine; nang-ga, thine;  $am\bar{a}$ -ga, his; ni- $r\bar{u}$ , we; nang- $r\bar{u}$ , you; ma- $r\bar{u}$ , thoy. Ni- $r\bar{u}$  seems to mean 'me-with' in the parable; thus, nang- $b\bar{e}$  ni- $r\bar{u}$   $amh\bar{a}$ - $y\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{u}$ , thou me-with together-art. The pronoun of the third person consists of two elements, a and  $m\bar{a}$ . Both can be used alone; thus, a- $n\bar{e}$ , his-brother; ma- $p\bar{u}$ , his father. It has already been stated that the use of the prefixes a and ma, which

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are probably identical with these pronominal stems, is a rather wide one, a for instance being used instead of na, thy.

Demonstrative pronouns.—Hai,  $h\dot{e}$ , and hi, this;  $h\ddot{u}$ , that:  $t\ddot{u}$ , that. Most of these forms are inferred from other words such as hi- $y\ddot{u}$ -bung, so many;  $h\ddot{u}$ - $y\ddot{u}$ -ping, those-many; a- $m\ddot{a}$ -hi, he;  $t\ddot{u}$ - $h\ddot{a}$ , that-in, then, etc. The word  $b\dot{e}$ , which occurs in forms such as ni- $b\ddot{e}$ , l; hai- $b\ddot{e}$ , this, etc., is perhaps also originally a demonstrative pronoun. It is still such in Bodo. The pronoun a- $m\ddot{a}$ , he, also occurs in the sense 'that.' He generally means 'this,' but occasionally also 'that.' It is probably identical with hai and hi.  $T\ddot{u}$  seems to correspond to Meithei adu, and the Meithei pronoun asi, this, also occurs in the parable; thus, asi-ni, this-day, to-day.

There are no Relative pronouns. The common suffix of the relative participle is apparently  $n\bar{u}$ ; thus,  $lip\bar{a}$   $h\bar{e}$   $k\bar{u}ng$   $a-n\bar{u}$  mi  $kh\bar{e}$ , country that in living man one;  $u\bar{e}l-li-n\bar{u}$  ka-mi-nai, wages-getting servants. Another suffix  $m\bar{a}$  seems to occur in  $y\bar{u}o$   $sh\bar{e}l-m\bar{u}$  mi, a shepherd. A suffix rang or rhang is also used to form relative sentences; thus,  $n\bar{i}$   $ka-n\bar{a}$  fa-rang  $m\bar{e}m$ , me with to be-got property, the property which I shall get;  $u\bar{u}$   $ch\bar{a}$ -rhang  $ch\bar{e}$ - $u\bar{e}$ , pigs-by to-be-eaten husks. Rang seems to correspond to the postposition rang, for, in Hallām and other languages, where it is also used to form the future and an infinitive of purpose. 'All that I have is thine' is rendered  $n\bar{i}$   $kan\bar{a}$  tho- $k\bar{i}$ -ma- $kh\bar{e}$  nang thimpā. Tho- $k\bar{i}$  seems to be the genitive of tho, i.e. thiu, to be, and thimpā probably mean 'property.' The whole sentence, therefore, must apparently word for word be translated as follows:—me-with being-of all thy property. Compare  $m\bar{e}m$ - $g\bar{i}$  ma- $kha\bar{i}$ , property-of everything, all his property.

The following Interrogative pronouns occur:—a-kū or a-kū-ti, who? dū-pā or dū-bū, what? dū-wa-wa-di, why? yā-thū-chā, how many? a-yāng-kā, how many are?

The Indefinite pronoun a-kū-rāmhēn, any-one, is derived from the interrogative a-kū, who?

Verbs.—Ka is often prefixed to various forms of the verbs; thus, ka-pē-wā, give; ka-pē-mā, gavest-not; ka-da-bē, saying. I cannot see what meaning this prefix has. The list of words is so arranged that it seems as if there were a regular conjugation with different forms for the three persons. But a closer examination of the forms shows that there is no such conjugation. On the other hand, there are some traces of the use of pronominal prefixes in order to distinguish the person of the subject. Thus we find ni ka-bon-wal, I strike; nang ū-chē-wā, thou goest; a-wāng-nū, he came; ma-yēl-bē-wal, he divided-gave. The prefix a seems also to be used in the second person indicative and imperative. Thus, nang a-bon-wal, thou strikest; a-shū-wā, see, etc. In most instances, however, no prefix is used.

There is apparently no essential difference between present and past times. Some suffixes, however, seem to be regularly used to convey the meaning of the past. Sometimes no suffix is added; thus, a-mā wa-chā, he goes; a-mā-hing wa-chā, they go; kēl a-chē-rā kā-pē-mā, goat young one-even given-was-not. A reduplication seems to occur in a-ma-hing chi-chē, they go. In the second specimen the suffix ē is generally added; thus, rāl-ē, enemy-is, there are enemies; ka-thā-yē, it is good; lā lām-ē, head is taken. The commonest suffixes in the parable are kā or gā, and wā. Kā seems to be used indifferently to denote the present and past times; thus, amā thiū-kā, he is; ma-charā a-nhi ang-gā, children two were; mang-pa-kā, he became wretched. Kē seems to be

identical with  $k\bar{a}$  in a- $m\bar{a}$ -hing  $n\bar{u}ng\bar{a}i$ - $k\bar{e}$ , they rejoiced. It probably contains the suffix  $\bar{e}$ . According to the list ni may be added to  $k\bar{a}$ ; thus, ni thi $\bar{u}$ -ga-ni, I am; ni chi-ka-ni, I go. This form occurs as a future in the parable.

The suffix  $n\bar{u}$  seems to have a wider use. We have found it added in order to form relative participles, and we will find it hereafter as a suffix of the verbal noun. But generally it seems to be used in forming the historic tenses of the verb. Thus, ni  $ch\bar{e}$ -nu, I went;  $l\bar{e}$ - $d\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{u}$ , I disobeyed not; som- $n\bar{u}$ , he asked; thi- $n\bar{u}$ , he said. In ni- $b\bar{e}$  thi- $\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{u}$ , I am dying, it seems to be added to the suffix  $\bar{e}$ . It is also added to several other suffixes. Thus,  $th\bar{e}$ -cha- $n\bar{u}$ , he said;  $kh\bar{a}ng$ -cha-ka- $n\bar{u}$ , thou hast given; ni-hing chi- $h\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{u}$ , we went; nang ki-ta- $n\bar{u}$ , thou struckest; pa- $m\bar{a}$ -ta- $n\bar{u}$ , he wasted; a- $m\bar{a}$  chi- $y\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{u}$ , he went.  $H\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{u}$  and  $y\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{u}$  are probably identical with  $\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{u}$ ; see above. Ta- $n\bar{u}$  or  $t\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{u}$  seems to contain a suffix  $t\bar{a}$ , probably identical with  $t\bar{a}$  in Lushei and many other connected languages where it is used as a suffix of the past. Cha- $n\bar{u}$  probably contains some independent verb.  $Ch\bar{a}$ , to go, occurs in the list of words.

The suffix  $t\bar{a}$  just mentioned seems to be connected with another suffix, ti or thi which seems to be used in the past tense. Thus, ni- $hing k\bar{e}$ -ti, we struck;  $kanh\bar{a}$ -thi, I sinned;  $ka \ bon$ -thi, I have struck; nang- $hing \ w\bar{a}$ -cha-ti, you went. Compare hang-thi- $n\bar{u}$  having arisen; and perhaps chon- $th\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{u}$ , having gone, etc. The list of words furnishes  $nang \ thi\bar{u}$ -ga-ti, thou art.

 $T\bar{a}$  seems also to be connected with  $d\bar{a}$  or  $d\bar{e}n$ - $d\bar{a}$  in ni thi $\bar{u}nd\bar{a}$ , I was; nang- $b\bar{e}$  thi $\bar{u}nd\bar{e}nd\bar{a}$ , thou wast.

A suffix  $w\bar{a}$ , perhaps related to Meithei  $b\bar{a}$ , occurs in ka-ma-ti-ma- $v\bar{a}$ , I-worthy-notam;  $nang \bar{u}$ - $ch\bar{e}$ - $w\bar{a}$ , thou goest.

The suffix wal seems to convey the 'idea of past time. Thus, ni kē-wal, I struck; ka-thē-wal, he said; ma-yēl-bē-wal, he divided-gave.

Present definite.—The root alone, without any suffix, seems to be used as a present definite. Thus,  $ni \ k\bar{e}$ , I am striking. Other forms of the same tense are  $ch\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{u}$ , they are eating; ma- $ch\bar{a}$ -mang, he is giving (a feast); wa- $p\bar{u}ng$ - $h\bar{a}n$ -mang, he is grazing.

Perfect.—The form ni cha-lē, I have walked, is perhaps Meithei.

The suffix of the Future seems to be ni or ning, to which ga or fo may be prefixed. Thus, ni thūng-ga-ni or ni thiū-ga-ning, I shall be; thē-ka-ni, I will say; ni a-būm-fo-ni, I will strike.

The root alone, without any suffix, but generally with a prefix, seems to be used as an Imperative. Thus, i-chē, go; ka-pē, give. The root is apparently reduplicated in cha-chā, go, walk. A suffix o occurs in the second specimen and in several of the verbs in McCulloch's list; thus, khūng-bi pāng-ō, war-song raise; kā-di-yo, be strong. In other instances we find a suffix ā, generally preceded by a consonant, b, w, or m. Thus, tūng-ā, bind; i-bon-bā, strike; wang-wā, walk; ali-wā, take; a-bu-mā, strike. The forms thakā, die, and ka-chā-mang, eat, look like finite tenses. The suffix of the first person is sē or sik; thus, wa-sē (McCulloch), let us go; an-yā-sikā, let us all be. McCulloch furnishes the form wa me othī, do not go. Wa-me is perhaps a negative participle; compare tha-mi, good-not-being, bad. Othī is perhaps the imperative of thiū, to be; thus, wa-me o-thī, going-not be.

The root alone is also used as an *Infinitive* or *Verbal noun*. Thus  $l\bar{u}-l\bar{a}m$ , head-taking; ni ithiū pangam, I be can, I may be; ni ka-nā tho-ki ma-khē, me with being-of all, all that I have; wān-thūng, remaining-in, when he remained. I have already

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mentioned that the forms fa-rang, to-be-got, and  $ch\bar{a}$ -rhang, to be-eaten, perhaps contain this verbal noun plus a postposition rang or rhang, for. It seems probable that we have to explain the forms ka-da- $b\bar{e}$ , on saying, and ka- $w\bar{a}ng$ - $b\bar{e}$ , on coming, in the same way. Thus, in- $th\bar{u}ng$ - $h\bar{a}$  a- $w\bar{a}ng$ - $th\bar{u}$ - $w\bar{a}$  ka-da- $b\bar{e}$  rho-ma- $n\bar{u}$ , house-into enter on-saying herefused, when (the servant) said 'enter' he refused; na- $char\bar{a}$   $h\bar{e}$  ka- $w\bar{a}ng$ - $b\bar{e}$ , thy son this coming-on, when this thy son came. A verbal noun is also formed by adding the suffixes  $n\bar{u}$  and  $b\bar{a}$ . Thus, a- $b\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{u}$ , sound; a- $d\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{u}$ , dancing;  $p\bar{u}ng$ -yai- $b\bar{a}$ , drum-beating. The root alone is also used as an Infinitive of purpose; thus,  $w\bar{a}$  rhong, pigs to-tend, in order to-tend pigs. The suffix  $n\bar{u}$  seems also to be used; thus, ma- $p\bar{a}ng$ - $h\bar{a}$   $n\bar{u}ng\bar{a}i$ - $n\bar{a}$   $ch\bar{a}$ - $h\bar{a}ng$ - $n\bar{u}$ , my-companions-with in-happiness feasting-for, in order to make merry with my friends. The forms  $n\bar{u}ng\bar{a}i$ - $b\bar{a}ka$   $har\bar{a}u$ - $b\bar{a}ka$ , to make merry and be glad (is proper), are apparently Meithei. The forms  $ith\bar{u}$ -na- $r\bar{a}$ , to be; ibon-na- $r\bar{a}$ , to strike, are probably infinitives of purpose; i- $thi\bar{u}$ - $k\bar{a}$  ka-ma-ti-ma- $v\bar{a}$ , to-be (thy son) I-worthy-notam, is perhaps identical with the Meithei future in  $g\bar{e}$ .

Participles.—The Relative participle has been mentioned under Relative pronouns. An Adverbial participle may be formed by adding the suffix  $n\bar{a}$ , as in Meithei. Thus, ni-kam- $n\bar{a}$ , in plenty;  $n\bar{u}ng\bar{a}i$ - $n\bar{u}$ , happily. Compare the form  $ch\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{u}$ , they are eating. Another suffix of this participle seems to be  $m\bar{a}$ ; thus, ma-lang- $m\bar{a}$ , wickedly.  $N\bar{a}$  seems also to be used in order to form a Conjunctive participle; thus,  $am\bar{a}$ - $h\bar{e}$  kan $\bar{a}$  b $\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{a}$  sh $\bar{u}$ - $u\bar{u}$  thus, hand be a defended to  $n\bar{a}$ ; thus, ka-b $\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{u}$ - $d\bar{e}$ , striking, having struck. It is, however, possible that n belongs to the root, in which case the suffix would be  $\bar{a}$ . The suffix  $n\bar{u}$  is the most common in forming this participle. Thus, ma- $p\bar{a}$  chom- $n\bar{u}$  ma- $d\bar{a}$ -to pa-yo- $n\bar{u}$ , his-father running him kissed; ma- $d\bar{a}$  hang-thi- $n\bar{u}$  ma- $p\bar{a}$  k $\bar{u}$ ng a- $u\bar{a}$ ng- $n\bar{u}$ , he arising his-father to he-went; ma- $p\bar{a}$  a- $u\bar{a}$ ng-th $\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{u}$  ma-char $\bar{a}$ -to pa- $nh\bar{e}$ n- $n\bar{u}$ , his-father having-come-out his-son entreated. This form is, as already stated, also used to denote the finite tenses, or, in other words, the sentences are simply put together, without any connecting participle.

There is no Passive voice. Thus, ni-do mi ki- $n\bar{u}$ , I am struck, seems to mean 'me man strikes.' I cannot satisfactorily explain the form ni-do mi-kai-ko-thi-ma, I shall be struck. In the parable we find forms such as  $d\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{u}$ , he has been found;  $f\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{u}$ , he has been recovered.

Compound verbs are freely formed. Thus,  $y\bar{e}l$ ; divide;  $p\bar{e}$ , give;  $y\bar{e}l$ - $b\bar{e}$ , divide-give, allot:  $w\bar{a}ng$ , walk; chom, go;  $w\bar{a}ng$ -chom, go:  $w\bar{a}ng$ , walk;  $rh\bar{u}$ , enter;  $w\bar{a}ng$ - $rh\bar{u}$ , go in. The prefix  $h\bar{a}$  seems to denote motion towards; thus, ni- $b\bar{e}$  ka- $p\bar{a}$   $k\bar{u}ng$   $h\bar{a}$ - $v\bar{u}$ -ni, I my-father to go-will. The prefix pa has apparently a transitive force. Thus, pa-thang- $n\bar{u}$ , answered; pa- $m\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{u}$ , wasted; pa-sol- $n\bar{u}$ , was lost; pa-y- $n\bar{u}$ , kissed. There are apparently several verbs yo. Compare the sentence  $w\bar{a}$   $ch\bar{a}$ -rhang  $ch\bar{e}$ - $w\bar{e}$  y- $n\bar{a}$  pa-y- $n\bar{u}$  pigs food husks even although-he-wished-to-eat. Yo-na perhaps corresponds to Meithei  $y\bar{a}m$ - $n\bar{a}$ , much, and pa- $y\bar{o}$ - $n\bar{u}$  may mean 'wanted.' Thus, y- $n\bar{a}$  pa-y- $n\bar{u}$ , he wanted much. A causative prefix ma seems to occur in forms such as ma- $p\bar{u}m$ - $h\bar{a}$ -wal, he wasted; ma-shi-wal, he sent; 'ma- $ch\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}ng$ , he is giving a feast.

The Negative particle is  $m\bar{a}$ , or, in adjectives, mi. Thus, ka- $p\bar{e}$ - $m\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{u}$ , gave not: ikopi- $n\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{u}$ , ill was not; tha-mi, good-not, had. In one instance we find the Meithei negative  $d\bar{e}$ : thus,  $l\bar{e}$ - $d\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{u}$ , disobeyed not.

Order of Words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb. The indirect object sometimes precedes, but generally follows, the direct one.

[No. 32.]

# TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

# KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

ANAL,

# SPECIMEN I.

(Babu Bisharup Singh, 1899.)

(STATE, MANIPUR.)

khē-gi ma-charā anhi ang-gā. Anhiki manung ma-charā ma-tom-bā Mi Man a-certain-of his-sons two were. Two-of from-amongst his-son ma-pā kūng ka-thē-wal, 'ka-pā, nang asi-ni-ki makhai ni kanā 'my-father, you to-day-from whatever me with to-be-had said. mēm hē ka-pē-wā. Ma-pā woni-chā mēm ma-yēl-bē-wal. wealth that give? His-father the-two-brothers-for wealth divided. Davschirēm hāthē ma-charā ma-tom-bā honnū hai-so-hā mēm-gi-ma-khai a-few remaining his-son younger wealth-of-as-much-as carrying far khē-hā chon-thū-nū ma-lang-mā ma-mēm-ki-ma-khai ma-pum-hā-wal. having-gone wickedly his-wealth-of-as-much-as wasted. Mēm-ki-ma-khai pūma-thū-nū ido-mā ma-chonā-hā bũ Wealth-of-as-much-as having-been-wasted that-place-in rice very tāng-lam-nū. Ma-dā nang-pakā. Ma-dā lipā  $h\bar{e}$ kūng a-nū  $\mathbf{m}i$ dear-became. He wretched-became. He country that inliving man khē kung wang-chom-nu Mi a-mā-to wā amhāi-nū. rhong shi-hā a having-gone joined-together. Manthat swine to-pasture field-to ma-shi-wal. Wā chā-rhang chēwē vonā payonū sent(-him). Swine-(by) to-be-eaten huskseven although-wished-to-eat akū-rāmhēn ka-pē-mā-nū. Tū-thāl tē-sing-nū ma-dā manumrā thē-cha-nū, any-one gave-not. Afterwards sense-having-come he to-himself said. 'ka-pa-kong-ki sēl-li-nū ka-mi-nai nikam-nā chā-nā-nū: ni-bē ka-poi 'my-father's money-taking **serv**ants in-plenty are-eating: Ι belly tham thie-nū. Ni-bē ka-pā kũng hā-wā-ni thē-ka-ni, being-hungry am-nearly-dying. I my-father "my-father, togoing will-say, ni-bē Lē kūng-hā ka-mhā-thi. nang küng-hā khē pa-mhā-nū, ni-bē I God to have-done-wrong, *you* also to have-done-wrong, I nang charā ithiū-kā ka-ma-ti-ma-wā; ni-bē a-mi-nai khē thiū-ga-ning."' Ma-dā your to-be worthy-am-not; I servant will-be." Ħе one hang-thi-nū ma-pā küng a-wäng-nü. Han-so-ha ma-pā wan-thung getting-up his-father to came. At-distance his-father coming-in thi-nū, woam-sā-nū, chom-nū, ma-dā-to pa-yo-nū. ma-pā Ma-charā being-compassionate, running, his-father him His-son kissed.

kung ka-the-wal, 'ka-pā ni-bē Lē kūng-hā ka-mhā-thi kung-ha nang 'my-father to said. I Godto have-done-wrong, you to charā ithiū-kā ka-ma-ti-ma-wā.' khē pa-mhā-nū, nang Tū-hā ma-pā also have-done-wrong, your 80N to-be worthy-am-not. Thereupon his-father kūng-hā bū. mi-nai hing ma-the-wal. tha-tang-nū a-hol-nū ka-charā servants many to said. "garments best bringing my-80n a-pa-hēl-wā; ma-kū-hā kūpāl khē abnā-wā, ma-khū-hā khongūp abnā-wā. let-wear: his-hand-on ring put, his-feet-on Œ 8 hoes put. A-charā hē thi-nū. athā a-yēl-nū; pa-sol-nū, dū-nū: My-son this had-died, again came-alive; he-was-lost, he-was-found; ni-hing chā-nū ne-nū nūngi-nā anyā-sik-ā.' A-mā-to dē-nū a-mā-hing nūngai-kē eating drinking merrily let-us-remain.' Thissaying Ma-tam tūng ma-charā ma-rhēm thi-lē ang-kā. Ma-dā ma-in-hā Time that-at his-son elder field-in He his-house-towards was. a-wāng-nū pūng yai-bā a-bē-nū a-dā-nū wā-nā-tā-nū. Ma-dā mi-nai khē on-nū, drum beating sound dancing Heheard. servant 'ma-na-to-hing da-ba?' mi-nai kūng som-nü. Tū-hā mi-nai hā 'things-these what-are?' servant to asked. Thereupon servant that 'wa-nē ikopi-nā-ma-nū a-wang-nu a-wang-nū: ma-charā pa-thang-nū, 'brother has-come; ill-not-being his-son having-come replied, pāntrā ma-chā-mang.' Tū-hā ma-dā ma-long-thi-nū in-thūng-hā na-pā feast house-into your-father is-giving.' Thereupon he getting-angry a-wāng-thū-nū ma-charā-to pa-nhēn-nū. a-wäng-rhū-wā ka-da-bē rho-ma-nū. Ma-pā on-saying refused. His-father having-come-out his-80n entreated. A-mā-to ma-pā kūng-hā pa-thang-nū, a-shū-wā, kūm hiyā-bang hē ni-bē ka-pā 'behold, years so-many these I my-father He his-father to answered, lē-dē-nū: a-pē ni nang a-sipā to-nū tokhi-rā ka-pā nang I did-not-disobey; your words service in-doing even-once my-father ma-pāng-hā nungai-na cha-ha-hang-nu kel a-chera tū-lhān-tūng ma-rūp goat young nevertheless my-friends companions-with in-happiness to-eat sē-nū kūng-hā pē-ta-nū ka-pē-mā. a-mēm som-bang khē-rā Nang Your substance all-that giving woman toone-even has-not-been-given. Tũ-hã pāntrā khāng-chaka-nū.' pa-mā-ta-nū na-charā hē ka-wāng-bē nang Thereupon. have-given.' who-wasted your-son this on-coming you feast in-tē-tē-mā amliāyā-sē-nū; ka-thē-wal, 'ka-charā-o, nang-bē ni-rū at-all-times live-together; his-father me-with 'my-child-O, said, you thi-nū, a-thā hē kanā tho-ki-makhē nang thim-pā: a-nē had-died. your-brother this again with whatever-is is: me yours ni-hing-to nūngāi-bā-ka harāū-bā-ka a-vēl-nū: pa-sol-nū, fā-nū; merrily-to-remain gladly-to-remain we he-came-alive; he-was-lost, he-was-found; chūm-kā.' it-is-proper.'

[No. 33.]

# TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

ANĀL.

# SPECIMEN II.

(STATE, MANIPUR.)

(Babu Bisharup Singh, 1899.)

SONGS SUNG AT THE TIME OF WAR AND ON THE OCCASION OF KILLING A TIGER RESPECTIVELY.

Rālē rālē. kādivē. hêngûn rālē kādiyo. there-is-war, (the-enemy-)is-strong, There-is-war here is-war be-strong. Rālē rālē. kādiyē, hēngūn rālē, kādivo. There-is-war, there-is-war, the-enemy-is-strong, here be-strong. is-war. Shā-rhāng-pāngtē ma-vēlbata dēndūnū: Sembu-pangte mhi bling-keng-kung. Tiger its-skin is-striped; Sēmbū 1 wide-opened. eye Changhāl-pātē ma-vēlbata dēndūnū. Sēmbū-pāngtē bling-keng-kung, mhi Wild-cat its-skin Sēmbū is-striped. eyE wide-opened. Lū-lāmē lū-lāmē. khūngbi pango, lū-lāmē, tarang, lū-lām Head-is-taken head-is-taken, war-song raise, head-is-taken, sing, head-taking ka-thāyē. Lū-lāmē, Khūngbi pāngo, lū-lāmē. lū-lāmē good-is. War-song head-is-taken. Head-is-taken, raise, head-is-taken. khūngbi pāngo, lū-lāmē, tarang, ka-thāyē, lū-lām khūngbi pāngo, war-song raise, head-is-taken, sing, head-takina good-is, war-song raise. lū-lāmē, tarāng, lū-lām kathāyē. head-is-taken. sing. head-taking good-is.

## FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

The war has broken out, the enemy is strong. He is here, be you strong. The tiger's skin is striped; the Sembu's eye is wide-open.

The wild cat's skin is striped; the Sembu's eye is wide-open.

The wild cat's skin is striped; the Sembu's eye is wide-open.

A head is taken, a head is taken, raise the war-song. A head is taken, sing a song. Good it is to take a head. Raise the war-song, for a head is taken, and so forth.

<sup>1</sup> A kind of bird having large eyes.

## HIRŌI LAMGĀNG.

The Hirōi Lamgang dialect is spoken by a small tribe in Manipur. Their total number is estimated to lie between 500 and 1,000. We have no information regarding their villages in the hills, but they are found in the plains at Lamgang, in the southern part of the valley.

Mr. Damant mentions the Lumyang Kukis as a powerful and warlike tribe to the south of the Anāls. He states that they are gradually being driven north-wards by the Soktēs, and that they claim to be the oldest branch of the whole Kuki family. This tribe is probably identical with the Hirōi Lamgāng tribe.

#### AUTHORITY-

Damant, G. H.—Notes on the Locality and Population of the Tribes dwelling between the Brahmaputra and Ningthi Rivers. Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, New Series, Vol. xii, 1880, p. 228.

Note on Lumyang Kuki on p. 239.

I have not come across any other authority dealing with this tribe.

Two specimens and a list of standard words and phrases have been received from Lamgang, all prepared by Babu Bisharup Singh. The list of words abounds in verbal forms, the exact meaning of which cannot be ascertained. There are also some doubtful points in the specimens. The remarks on Lamgang grammar which follow, and which are entirely based on these texts, must accordingly be used with caution.

Pronunciation.—The vowels of the prefixes seem to be indistinctly sounded. They are sometimes entirely dropped, and their colour is apparently influenced by the following vowel. Thus, we find :—ka- $ch\bar{e}n$ - $\bar{a}$ , run; ki-di- $y\bar{a}$ , die;  $k\bar{u}$ - $d\bar{u}i$ , to find pleasure at; nai-k pāū-thē, of me, lit. I my (ka) word; pa-rai-dā, striking; a-prai, strike; ta-kū, nine; ti-ksi- $y\bar{u}$ , seven;  $t\bar{u}$ - $r\bar{u}k$ , six, etc.  $K\alpha$ - $l\bar{a}$  and  $kl\bar{a}$ , far, and several other instances of the same kind can only be accounted for through the supposition that the a in ka has a very faint sound. We find a similar contraction in cases such as awā and āo, that; ha-wā, hau It is often difficult to decide whether a vowel is long or short. U is always marked as long, but this is the case in all texts prepared by Babu Bisharup Singh, and we can never know whether a u is really long or short. We often find the same word written sometimes with a long, and sometimes with a short, vowel. Thus, thang and thang, in;  $aw\bar{a}$  and  $\bar{a}wa$ , that. The use of the short vowel seems to be due to the adding of an accentuated suffix in ta-ki, what-from? why? from tā, what? Ai is sometimes interchangeable with ē; thus, nai, I; nēmbē, with me; nang-ai, thou; nai-yē, I: Lāi, God;  $l\bar{e}$ -ka-long, devil. In the same way au and o are sometimes interchanged; thus, alau, take; klo, taking. O and  $\bar{u}$  often seem to denote the same sound; thus,  $k\bar{u}$  and ko, who? E and i are sometimes interchangeable; thus, pi and pē, give; hin-ki and hin-kē from, etc. The sound of final ng is apparently rather faint. Thus, we find  $w\bar{a}ng$ ,  $w\bar{a}n$ , and  $w\bar{a}$ , to come;  $a-d\bar{u}-th\bar{a}ng$ , behind;  $k\bar{u}-d\bar{u}-th\bar{a}$ , behind me, etc. Hard and soft consonants are sometimes interchangeable. Thus, we occasionally find the common prefix ka written ga, etc. R is a common sound, but l is substituted, for it in  $l\bar{u}p\bar{a}$ , silver. We often find rr as final consonant; thus, thirr, iron; horr, bring, etc. The doubling of the r seems in some cases to be due to the elision of a following short vowel; thus, ka-ra- $w\bar{a}$ , he comes ; karr- $b\bar{a}ng$ - $d\bar{a}$ , he has come. It will be seen that b is substituted for the initial w in wang, wa, to come, after this double r.

We have no information about accentuation and tones.

Prefixes and Suffixes.—There are in Lamgang, as in the Naga languages, many prefixes and suffixes, which have originally had a definite meaning of their own, but are now apparently used without adding anything to the meaning. Most of the suffixes, however, seem to be used as postpositions in the inflection of nouns and verbs, and will be mentioned below. The vowels of the prefixes are often, as already stated, of uncertain colour, partly assimilating themselves to the vowel of the following syllable. They are also sometimes dropped altogether so that only the initial consonant of the prefix remains. Thus, lam- $kl\bar{a}$ , distant, seems to consist of two words, lam, way, and  $kl\bar{a}$ , far.  $Kl\bar{a}$  must be compared with  $l\bar{a}$  or  $lh\bar{a}$ , far, in connected languages and certainly contains a prefix ka; compare  $K\bar{o}m$  ka- $lh\bar{a}$ , far. The form  $kl\bar{a}$  apparently represents an intermediate stage between ka- $l\bar{a}$  and  $lh\bar{a}$ . Compare Tibetan, where the prefixes are still written, but have long since ceased to be pronounced. The most usual prefixes in Lamgang will be mentioned in alphabetical arrangement. The a which will be given as their final vowel is, in many cases at least, an indistinct sound:

A.—The prefix a or  $\bar{a}$  is very often used before nouns. Thus, a- $kh\bar{u}t$ , hand; a-poi, belly; a-ka-nā, ear. It is often prefixed to the governing noun after the genitive of a personal pronoun. Thus, nai a-kāng-rūp, my companions; nang a-chā-pā, thy son, etc. It is sometimes translated 'thy.' Thus, a-hin-rūko, thy-presence-in-also. It also occurs before verbs, especially in the imperative; thus,  $a-j\bar{a}-d\bar{a}$ , he heard;  $a-r\bar{u}ng$ , pasture; a-son, listen. In a-rango, formerly, it is apparently prefixed to an adverb. We sometimes find arr instead of a, thus arrbang-da, came; arrpom-da, embraced. This arr is perhaps a contraction of two suffixes a and ra. Compare ka-ra-wa, comes. In i-sang, high, the prefix i seems to be identical with  $\alpha$ . The original meaning of the prefix  $\alpha$  cannot be In some places it may be compared with the Burmese prefix a which forms nouns from verbal roots; thus  $a-k\bar{a}$ , the side of a building, from  $k\bar{a}$ , to cover on the side. But it is also possible to compare the possessive pronoun or, more correctly, pronominal prefix a, his, which is used in most Kuki-Chin and Nāgā languages. It must then be supposed to have lost the special meaning of a pronoun of the third person and to have become merely a definite article. We find a corresponding phenomenon in Rangkhöl where  $\bar{a}$  seems gradually to supersede the pronominal prefixes of the first and second persons in the conjugation of verbs.

Ka.—The prefix ka is often a pronominal prefix of the first person. Thus, ka- $p\bar{a}$ , my father; nai ka-hin- $th\bar{a}$ , I my-presence-in, to me; nai-k  $p\bar{a}\bar{u}th\bar{e}$ , i.e. nai ka- $p\bar{a}\bar{u}th\bar{e}$ , of me, lit. I my word. This meaning is probably, in many cases, the original one. But the use of this prefix is so wide that we must probably infer that more than one word are the origin of it. Thus ka-poi, belly; ka-tham, hunger; ki-ni, sun; ko-mo, child; ka- $th\bar{a}$ , good; ka- $s\bar{a}ng$ , high; ka- $l\bar{a}$  and  $kl\bar{a}$ , far;  $kl\bar{o}$ , taking, receiving; ki-ni, two; ka- $d\bar{u}m$ , three; ka- $m\bar{a}ng$ -thok, he was lost; ka-tik- $m\bar{e}$ , I am unworthy; ka-am, was, etc. This prefix is occasionally also written ga; thus, ga- $d\bar{u}m$  (drum-)beating; ga- $m\bar{a}$ , without. The prefix karr seems to contain ka and another prefix ra. Thus, karr- $b\bar{u}ng$ - $\bar{a}$ , he has come; karr- $d\bar{a}m$ - $d\bar{a}$ , dancing. In the Naga languages ka or ke and in Bodo ga, are the regular adjectival prefixes. Compare Introduction, p. 15.

Ma.—The prefix ma is often the possessive pronoun of the third person. Thus, machā-pā, his son. It is, however, used in many words where such a meaning can no more

be found. Thus, ma-sa-wāi, husks; ma-don, branch; ma-shon, young; mu-pūm, all; ma-hān, up; ma-thē-ni, I will say; ma-pi-mē, thou gavest not; mu-to-lān, doing, etc. In marr-wan-nā, coming; marrawān-thūng-tā, when he came, ma seems to be combined with another prefix ra.

Na, which generally is the pronominal prefix of the second person, is used in a wider sense in ma-nā-chā, his son, etc.

Pa.—A prefix pa occurs in words such as plūng, mind; apta, tongue; pa-wā, bird; pilli, four; pa-ra-ngā, five; pa-then-dā, entreated; a-pa-hil, put on, etc. In ka-koi-ka-purr-nā-ga mā, illness-without, a prefix ra is apparently added after pa. The prefix po in po-māng, to waste, seems to be different, and to impart a causative meaning to the verb. It is connected with the Mikir pi and the Bodo ft, Tibetan b.

Ra.—A prefix ra has been mentioned above as added to the prefixes a, ka, ma, and pa. It is perhaps connected with the prefix ro in nai ka-ro-prai ma-ro- $w\bar{a}$ , I may be. I do not, however, understand this form.

Sa—seems to be a prefix in words such as sa-chāi, stripes; ma-sa-wāi, husks, etc. In sa-kol, horse, etc., it is no prefix, but means 'animal.'

Ta.—A prefix ta occurs in a few words. Thus,  $t\bar{u}$ - $r\bar{u}k$ , six;  $tiksiy\bar{u}$ , seven; ti- $r\bar{e}t$ , eight; ta- $k\bar{u}$ , nine; ta-am, to be; ta-prai-na- $r\bar{a}$ , to strike; ta- $f\bar{a}k$ , till

Articles.—There are no articles. The numeral *khat*, one, may be used as an indefinite article, and definiteness is indicated by the use of relative clauses, prefixes, and demonstrative pronouns.

**Nouns.**—Gender is only apparent in the case of animate beings. It is distinguished, in the case of human beings, by the use of different words. Thus,  $a-p\bar{a}$ , father;  $a-n\bar{u}$ , mother:  $a-n\bar{a}o$ , brother; a-charr, sister. Or the suffixes  $p\bar{a}$ , male, and  $n\bar{u}$ , female, are added. Thus,  $a-ch\bar{a}-p\bar{a}$ , child male, son;  $a-ch\bar{a}-n\bar{u}$ , child female, daughter. The same suffixes are also used in order to distinguish the gender of animals. Thus,  $sa-kol-p\bar{a}$ , a horse;  $sa-kol-n\bar{u}$ , a mare.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. When it is necessary to mark the plural, some word meaning 'many,' 'all,' etc., is added. Thus,  $a-p\bar{a}$   $ka-n\bar{e}m-kat$ , father many, fathers;  $a-p\bar{a}$   $ka-n\bar{e}m$  hin-ki, father many presence from, from fathers;  $pa-s\bar{e}l-p\bar{a}$   $ka-th\bar{a}-r\bar{e}t$ , man good-many, good men;  $ma-sar\bar{a}wor-r\bar{e}t$ , servants, etc.

Case.—The Nominative and the Accusative do not, as a rule, take any suffix. An  $\bar{a}$  is sometimes added to the nominative. Thus, sa-kol  $ka\text{-}nga\bar{u}\text{-}ki$   $s\bar{a}pal\text{-}\bar{a}$   $in\text{-}th\bar{u}ng\text{-}h\bar{a}$  ka-am, horse white-of saddle house-place-in is, in the house is the saddle of the white horse. This  $\bar{a}$  is probably identical with the  $\bar{a}$  which is added to the personal pronouns, where it also takes the forms ai and  $\bar{e}$ . It is probably originally a demonstrative pronoun. The suffix  $n\bar{a}$ , denoting the agent, is once, in the second specimen, added to the subject of a transitive verb. Thus,  $sang\bar{a}r\text{-}n\bar{a}$   $kh\bar{e}l\text{-}d\bar{a}$ , the wild cat asked.  $N\bar{a}$  is once added to the subject of  $w\bar{a}\text{-}d\bar{a}$ , went; thus,  $sang\bar{a}r\text{-}n\bar{a}$   $w\bar{a}\text{-}d\bar{a}$ , the wild cat havinggone, lit. wild-cat-that going-was. This latter  $n\bar{a}$  is perhaps a demonstrative pronoun. Another suffix of the agent, corresponding to in in Lushēi and connected languages, perhaps occurs in forms such as  $ch\bar{a}\text{-}p\bar{a}ng$   $ma\text{-}p\bar{a}$   $hiniy\bar{a}$   $th\bar{e}\text{-}d\bar{a}$ , the-son his-father to said. The ng in  $ch\bar{a}\text{-}p\bar{a}ng$  is perhaps the suffix ing or in. Other instances are:  $ma\text{-}p\bar{a}ng$   $dai\text{-}d\bar{a}$ , his-father saw (him);  $ma\text{-}m\bar{a}ng$   $\bar{a}\text{-}ra\bar{u}$   $ma\text{-}p\bar{u}m$   $po\text{-}m\bar{a}ng\text{-}d\bar{a}$ , he his-property all

having-wasted, etc. It is, however, also possible that this ng only marks a slight nasal pronunciation of the preceding vowel.

The Genitive is often expressed by putting the governed before the governing word, without any suffix. Thus,  $a-p\bar{a}$  in-th $\bar{a}$ , thy-father's house-in. In  $r\bar{u}$  ma-don-th $\bar{a}$ , tree its-branch-on, on the branch of the tree, the possessive pronoun ma, its, seems to denote the genitive. The suffix ki, from, is often added to the governed word; thus, sa-kol ka  $nga\bar{u}-ki$   $s\bar{a}pal-\bar{a}$ , horse white-of saddle. Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are:  $\bar{a}$ , with, by means of; a-d $\bar{u}$ -th $\bar{a}$ ng, before; a-dil-th $\bar{a}$ , behind: hin, with;  $hiniy\bar{a}$ , to;  $hin\cdot ki$  or  $hin\cdot k\bar{e}$ , from; hin-th $\bar{a}$ , to; i,  $\bar{e}$ , and ing, in, at, to; ki, from;  $l\bar{e}n$  and  $l\bar{e}ng$ -th $\bar{a}$ , on;  $mb\bar{e}$ , with; ngin, for; th $\bar{a}$ , in, to; thang, towards, to; th $\bar{u}$  and th $\bar{u}ng$ , in, on, with; th $\bar{u}ng$ -ki and th $\bar{u}ng$ -ti, from. Many of these postpositions are probably individual nouns. Thus, th $\bar{u}ng$  occurs in the sense village in sentence No. 241, and it probably means 'place.' But in most cases we do not know these words otherwise than as postpositions.

Adjectives.—Adjectives usually follow, but occasionally also precede the noun they qualify. Thus,  $ma\text{-}ch\bar{a}\text{-}p\bar{a}$  thom- $p\bar{u}$  and thom- $p\bar{u}$  ch $\bar{a}\text{-}p\bar{a}ng$ , the younger son. The suffix  $p\bar{u}$  in thom- $p\bar{u}$  is probably a suffix of the relative participle. In other cases the ordinary verbal suffixes are added; thus,  $b\bar{u}$  t $\bar{u}ng\text{-}d\bar{u}$ , food became dear. The comparative degree is sometimes only indicated by the position of the compared nouns; thus,  $mu\text{-}charr\cdot n\bar{u}$   $ma\text{-}n\bar{a}o$   $is\bar{a}ng\text{-}\bar{a}$ , his-sister his-brother tall-is, his brother is taller than his sister. The suffix  $s\bar{e}t$  may be added in order to form comparatives and superlatives. Thus, khat  $ka\text{-}s\bar{a}ng\text{-}s\bar{e}t$ , one high-much, higher;  $ma\text{-}m\bar{a}$   $ka\text{-}s\bar{a}ng\text{-}s\bar{e}t$ , he high-much, highest. The superlative is formed by adding lang-lang in  $ka\text{-}th\bar{a}\text{-}lang\text{-}lang$ , best.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. They follow the noun they qualify. There are no traces in the specimens of the use of generic prefixes or suffixes.

Pronouns.—The following are the Personal pronouns:—

Singular,—

nai, I. nang, thou. ma-mā, he. nai-ki, nai-a, ka, my. nang-a, na, thy. ma-mā-ki, ma-mā, ma, his.

Plural,—

nain, we. nangin, you. ma-mān, they.
nai-ki-ki, our. nanga-na-ki, your. ma-mān-ā, mān-a, their.

A suffix ai,  $\bar{e}$ , or  $\bar{a}$  is often added in the nominative of the two first persons. Thus,  $nai \cdot y\bar{e}$  and  $nai \cdot y\bar{a}$ , I;  $nang \cdot ai$ , and  $nang \cdot a$ , thou. In the Genitive the short form ka is often added to the nominative of the first person. Thus, naik  $p\bar{a}\bar{u}th\bar{e}$ , that is nai  $ka \cdot p\bar{a}\bar{u}th\bar{e}$ , I my word, of me; nai  $ka \cdot hin \cdot th\bar{a}$ , I my-presence-in, to me. In the second person a or  $\bar{a}$  is added instead of na; thus,  $nang \cdot \bar{a}$   $p\bar{a}\bar{u}th\bar{e}$ , thy word, of thee; nang  $a \cdot ch\bar{a} \cdot p\bar{a}$ , thy son.  $Nai \cdot ka \cdot ti$ , mine, seems to mean 'I my property' or something like that.  $Nang \cdot i \cdot hin$ , thine, probably means 'thee-with.' Compare  $nai \cdot ka \cdot hin$   $ka \cdot am \cdot ki \cdot ma \cdot ki \cdot ni$ , they-presence-in being-of-all, all that I have. The stem of the third person is ma; thus,  $ma \cdot ki \cdot ni$ , they-two. The plural is formed by adding n. In sentence No. 198 we find  $nai \cdot ni$ , we, and in No. 200  $ma \cdot m\bar{a} \cdot ni$ , they, with a suffix ni, corresponding to the forms in  $K\bar{o}m$ , Hall $\bar{a}m$ , and Langrong. The form nangin, you, seems to be derived from nangin, i.e.  $nang\bar{e}$  and ni. In No. 160 we find  $nangan \cdot j\bar{u}$ , you, apparently derived

from  $nang\bar{a}$ , thou. The addition  $j\bar{u}$  is probably an emphasising demonstrative pronoun. The forms nai-ki-ki, our, and nanga-na-ki, your, have no plural suffix. The final ki is the common genitive suffix, but the forms ki (i.e. ka), and na before ki seem to indicate that ki is treated as a noun.

Demonstrative pronouns.—Ha-wā or hāo, this; a-wā or ā-o, that. The simple stems of these pronouns are apparently ha or ha, and a or a. Compare Kom hi and hiera, this Another stem si, corresponding to Meithei asi, this, occurs in si-ni, this-day, to-day.

The word  $j\bar{u}$  in nangan- $j\bar{u}$ , you, is probably the same as Rāngkhōl  $j\bar{u}$ , that.

Relative pronouns.—There are no relative pronouns, their place being supplied by relative participles. The usual form of these participles is the root with the prefix ka without any suffix. Thus, laū kū-nūm mi, jhum cutting man, cultivator; yūo ku-sēl mi, a shepherd; nai ka-tūm ā-raū, I getting property, the property which I shall get; lai-pāk a-wā-thā ka-am mi khat, country that-in living man one. The suffix wa is added to the verb in wak ro-chāk-nā ma-sa-wāi a-wā, pigs eaten husks that, the husks which the pigs ate. The suffix  $p\bar{u}$  in thom- $p\bar{u}$  chā- $p\bar{a}ng$ , the youngerson, is apparently also a suffix of the relative participle. In nangā-ki ā-raū ma-pūm ka-sū-bi hin-thā pi-dā po-mang-dā nachā-pā ha-wā, thy property all harlots to giving wasting thy-son this, this thy son who wasted and gave away all thy property to harlots, the forms ending in da may be considered as relative participles. The suffix  $d\bar{a}$  is very common in the inflection of the verbs, and it generally denotes the past time.

Interrogative pronouns.—Kū and ko, who? tū, what? ta-ki, why? ta-yūm, how much? ta-yā, how many?

Indefinite pronouns.—The only indefinite pronoun which occurs in the specimens is  $k\bar{u}$ -khat-son, any-one, composed of the interrogative pronoun  $k\bar{u}$ , the numeral khat, one, and the indefinite particle son.

Verbs.—The root alone, without any suffix, is often used to denote present and past Thus, nai ka-prai, I strike, I am striking; ka-am, he is; ka-ra-wā, he comes; ka-chūm, it is proper; a-rēn, thou boughtest; mamā ka-wā, he went. The commonest suffixes which are used in the same times are :-

 $\bar{A}$ ; thus,  $c\hbar \bar{a}$ - $d\bar{a}$  ka-an- $\bar{a}$ , (they) are eating; ka-di-rak-thi- $y\bar{a}$ , I am about to die;  $ka-am-\bar{a}$ , they were;  $k\bar{u}-d\bar{u}i-y\bar{a}$ , he found (it) sweet. Some of these forms perhaps contain a suffix  $y\bar{a}$ , which belongs to the past tense. Thus, naiy $\bar{a}$  ka-prai- $y\bar{a}$ , 1 struck.

Cha seems to convey the idea of past time. Thus, nungāi-chē, they made merry;

thē-cha-dā, he said; pāp cho-cha-nū, sin I committed.

 $D\bar{a}$  is a very common suffix, and denotes the past. Thus,  $b\bar{u}$   $t\bar{a}ng$ - $d\bar{a}$ , rice dear became; ma-pā hiniyā thē-dā, his father to (he) said; ka-pā komo a-nā-chā ma-charr  $la\bar{u}$ - $d\bar{a}$ , my uncle's son his sister has-taken, the son of my uncle has married his sister.

Kā only occurs in one or two places. Thus, sa-kol ā-kūm ta-yām sū-kā, (this) horse's years how-much amount? how old is this horse? and perhaps ha-li lon-tha ma- $m\bar{a}ng$  sil sa-jik ma- $p\bar{e}$ - $g\bar{a}$ , this-hill's top-on he cattle grass giving-is. The g in ma- $p\bar{e}g\bar{a}$ , however, is perhaps the final consonant of the root, in which case the suffix would be  $\bar{a}$ .

Nu.—This suffix is apparently also added to the present as well as to the past tensos. Thus, nai ka-thok-nū, I am, I was; nai-yā chē-nū, I have walked; nai-yā pa-rai-nū, I have struck.

The list of words contains many other suffixes, 50 arranged as to give the idea that there is a regular conjugation. We have no instances of their use, and I can therefore only reproduce the forms given. These suffixes are:—

Aping, in nai ka-wā aping, I go, I went; nang ka-wā aping, thou wentest

Ampin, in nain ka-wāng ampin, we go; nain ka-wā ampin, we went.

Ampati, in nang ka-wāng ampati, thou goest; nang-in ka-wā ampati, you went.

In, in nain ka-prai-in, we struck.

Lom, in ma-mān ka-wā-lom, they went.

 $N\bar{a}$ , in ma- $m\bar{a}$  ka-thok- $n\bar{a}$ , he is.

Ngan, in  $nang-an-j\bar{u}$  ka-thok-ngan, you are.

Ngan-ti-nū, in nang-in kā-thok-ngan-ti-nū, you were.

Ni, in nang ka-thok-ni, thou art.

No and no-mā, in nang-in, ma-mān, a-prai-no, you, they, struck; ma-mān ka-wāng-no-mā, they go. No is probably identical with nū.

Paktē, in nang ka-thok-pak-tē, thou wast.

Riyaū, in nai ka-prai-riyaū, I had struck.

Most of these additions are certainly separate words with a meaning of their own. This is also the case with the elements  $j\bar{a}k$ , lam, and thi, which occur in the specimens in forms such as:—ka-do-fan- $j\bar{a}k$ , he has been found again;  $w\bar{a}$ -karr-do-lam- $d\bar{a}$ , he went and joined; ma- $m\bar{a}n$  ka-thok-lam- $d\bar{a}$ , they are, they were; ka-di-rak-thi- $y\bar{a}$ , I am dying. But I am unable to see the real meaning of these words.

A Present definite and an Imperfect are formed by adding the verb am, to remain, to the root or to the participle in  $d\bar{a}$ . Thus,  $tong-d\bar{a}$  ka-am, he is sitting;  $ch\bar{a}-d\bar{a}$   $ka-am-\bar{a}$ , they are eating; nai ka-prai ka-am, I was striking.

A kind of *Perfect* is effected by adding the verb thok, to be; thus, ka-mäng-thok, he has been lost.

The suffix of the Future is ni: thus, nai ka- $p\bar{a}$  hin- $th\bar{a}$   $w\bar{a}$ -ni ma- $th\bar{e}$ -ni, I my father to go-will (and) say-will. The list of words furnishes the following forms: nai ka- $th\bar{u}k$ -ni-ka-di, I shall be; nai pa-rai-ningdi, I shall strike; nang a-prai- $n\bar{a}$ , thou wilt strike; ma- $m\bar{a}ng$  ka-prai- $ra\bar{a}$ , he will strike; nai-ni a-prai-ni-ni, we shall strike; nang-in a-prai- $n\bar{a}n$ , you will strike; ma- $m\bar{a}$ -ni ka-prai-rang, they will strike. I do not understand all these forms; nai ka- $th\bar{u}k$ -ni-ka-di, I shall be, must be compared with forms such as Hallām kei om- $k\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{i}$ , I shall be. Compare p. 196 above. The suffix  $r\bar{a}$  of the third person singular and rang of the third person plural is probably a postposition meaning 'for', 'in order to.' Compare Infinitive. The other suffixes have probably a similar meaning.

The root alone, or with one of the prefixes a and ka, is often used as an *Imperative*. Thus,  $w\bar{a}$ , go; a- $la\bar{u}$ , take; ka-thok, be. We also find imperatives formed by means of the suffixes  $\bar{a}$ ,  $n\bar{a}$ , and  $p\bar{a}$ . Thus, ka- $ch\bar{e}n$ - $\bar{a}$ , run; ap- $n\bar{a}$ , put;  $ch\bar{e}t$ - $p\bar{a}$ , go. I cannot analyse the forms  $y\bar{u}$ -koong, sit, and ma-hai- $p\bar{a}$ - $th\bar{u}t$ - $ch\bar{a}$ , cause me to be. The first person plural is formed by adding  $anch\bar{e}$  or  $inch\bar{e}$ ; thus,  $ch\bar{a}nch\bar{e}$   $n\bar{e}anch\bar{e}$   $n\bar{u}ng\bar{a}i$ -in- $ch\bar{e}$ , let us eat, drink, and make merry.

The root alone, without any suffix, is often used as an Infinitive or Verbal noun. Thus, nain nāng-āi-nā kampā-dā ta-am ka-chām, we merrily gladly to-remain proper-is. Adverbial sentences are formed by adding postpositions to this form. Thus, ma-di-thūng-ki, dying from, after he had died; marra-wān-thūng-tā, his-coming-at, as soon as he came;

ma-plūng sing-dā, his-mind-wise-becoming-in, when he came to senses;  $ma-am-l\bar{a}-ni$ , his being-in, while he was;  $ma-h\bar{a}n-s\bar{u}t-n\bar{a}$ , up-looking-at, when he looked up, etc. The suffixes  $d\bar{a}$ ,  $n\bar{u}$ , and  $p\bar{a}$  are sometimes added to the verbal noun. Thus,  $karr-d\bar{a}m-d\bar{a}$ , dancing;  $ka-thok-n\bar{u}$ , to be;  $y\bar{e}-p\bar{a}$ , to fill. The suffix of the Infinitive of purpose seems to be rang. Thus,  $a-k\bar{a}ng-r\bar{u}p$  thūng  $n\bar{u}ng-\bar{a}i-n\bar{a}$  ka-do-chāng-rang, my-friends with merrily together-eating-for, in order to make merry with my friends;  $ta-y\bar{u}-pang$   $k\bar{u}-d\bar{u}i-rang$ , how-much nice-being-for, how nice would it have been. The suffix  $r\bar{a}$  in  $ku-thok-r\bar{a}$ , to be;  $ta-prai-na-r\bar{a}$ , to strike, is probably identical with rang. The purpose of an action is also denoted by adding an imperative in connection with the participle  $\bar{e}-d\bar{a}$ , saying. Thus, wak  $a-r\bar{u}ng$   $\bar{e}-d\bar{a}$   $ma-m\bar{a}$   $la\bar{u}-th\bar{a}$   $si-d\bar{a}$ , 'pigs tend,' saying his fields-to (he) sent, he sent him to his fields in order to tend pigs.

Participles.—The Relative participles have been dealt with under Relative pronouns. The usual suffixes of the Adverbial participle are  $d\bar{a}$  and  $n\bar{a}$ . Thus,  $kam-p\bar{a}-d\bar{a}$ , gladly;  $n\bar{u}ng-\bar{a}i-n\bar{a}$ , merrily. A suffix  $l\bar{a}$  or  $l\bar{a}n$  occurs in  $ma-sa-v\bar{a}i$   $ch\bar{a}-mi-l\bar{a}$  ka-poi  $y\bar{e}-p\bar{a}$   $s\bar{u}k-n\bar{a}$ , husks eating belly to-fill wishing; nang-a  $s\bar{e}p\bar{a}$   $ma-to-l\bar{a}n$  nang  $a-p\bar{a}\bar{u}th\bar{e}$  nai  $ma-ka-toi-ka-m\bar{a}-to-m\bar{e}$ , thy service doing thy word I transgress-did-not. These forms may also be considered as conjunctive participles. They are originally probably verbal nouns with a postposition. The same is the case with forms such as mao-ma-ki, wickedly; ta-di, on saying, etc. The common form in  $d\bar{a}$  may often be considered as a Conjunctive participle. Thus,  $b\bar{u}$   $horr-d\bar{a}$   $ka-ch\bar{a}-p\bar{a}$  a-pa-hil, cloth bringing my-son cause-to-wear. The suffix  $l\bar{a}$  is used in the same way in  $ma-m\bar{a}$   $ka-d\bar{u}ng\bar{e}$   $a-prai-l\bar{a}$   $r\bar{u}i-y\bar{a}$   $a-kt\bar{u}$ , him well beating ropes-with bind.

There is no Passive voice.  $F\bar{a}$ - $d\bar{a}$ , he has been found, literally means 'his finding (took place)'; nai ma-prai- $d\bar{a}$ , I am struck, lit. me he strikes, etc.

Compound verbs are freely used in order to modify the meaning of the verbs. Thus, wāng, come; chēn, run; wāng-chēn, run towards; thēm, divide; pi, give; ka-thēm-pi, he divided and gave; wā, go; karr-do, join; wā-karr-do-lam-dā, he went and joined. In most cases we have no materials for deciding which meaning the members of a compound have. Thus, ma-hai-pi, give; hāi-sok, draw; won-pi-sā-dā, he pitied; pa-thēn-dā, he entreated, etc. Po seems to give a transitive force to the verb; thus, po-māng, to waste. Hān or hang seems to denote motion upwards; thus, ma-hān-sūt-nā, looking up; hang-yong, to jump up. The suffix rak seems to mean 'to begin,' 'to be about'; thus, ka-di-rak-thi-yā, I am about to die. Thok probably corresponds to Lushēi chhuak, to go out; thus, ma-pāng wāng-thok-dā, his father came-went-out, etc.

The Negative particle is  $m\bar{a}$  or  $m\bar{a}ng$ . Thus,  $ka-th\bar{a}-ka-m\bar{a}$ , good-not, bad;  $pi-m\bar{a}ng$ , gave not. When it is added to verbs it generally occurs in the form  $m\bar{e}$ . Thus,  $ma-pi-m\bar{e}$ , thou gavest not. The prefix ka in  $ka-m\bar{a}$  seems to show that the negative particle is still felt as a verbal root. In  $a-ma-d\bar{a}$ , was not, the negative is apparently used as an ordinary verb.

I have not found any Interrogative particle.

Order of Words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb. The indirect object sometimes precedes and sometimes follows the direct one.

[No. 34.]

## TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

# KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

#### HIRÖI-LAMGANG.

### SPECIMEN I.

(STATE, MANIPUR.)

(Babu Bisharup Singh, 1899.)

Mi khat-ki ma-chā-pā kini ka-am. Māna la-ki thom-pū Man one-of his-sons two were. Them from-amongst younger chā-pāng ma-pā hiniyā thē-dā. 'a-pā nai-ka-tūm ā-raū a-wā his-father 80B to father said. to-me-to-be-allotted goodsthat nai-ka hintha mahai-pi.' A-pā ā-raū ma-ki-ni ka-thēm-pi. ngin me towards give.' His-father goodsthem-two for divided. Ni ki-ni khat am-thirā ma-chā-pā thom-pū ā-raū ma-pūm pū-dā Days two oneremaining his-son younger wealth allcarrying lam-klā laipāk khat thā wā-da mao-ma-ki ā-raū ma-pūm po-māng-dā. distant country one to having-gone wickedly wealth allwasted. Ma-mang ā-raū ma-pūm po-māng-dā laipāk awā kūm-i bū Hewealth allwastedcountry thatyear-in rice āwa-thung ma-mang manukadai nang-dā. Ma-māng laipāk became-dear; thereupon he became-wretched. veru Hecountry awā-thā ka-am mi khat hin-thā wā-karrdo-lam-dā. Awā mi wak that-in residing man one towent-and-joined. That man swine a-rung ē-dā ma-mā laū-thā si-dā. Wak ro-chāk-nā pasture saying his field-to sent (him). Swine (by) which-was-eaten ma-sa-wāi awā yaūnā chāmi-lā ka-poi yēpā sūk-nā kū-khat-son husksthat even by-eating belly to-fill wished-although. any-one pi-mang. Ma-plung sing-dā ma-māng ma-thainā thē-cha-dā, 'ka-pā His-mind became-sensible gave-not. he to-himself said. 'my-father's ā-raū klo ma-sarāwor-rēt ka-wāt ka-mā bū chā-dā ka-amā. money taking servants deficiency without. ricecating are-living. Nai-yā ka-poi ka-tham ka-di-rak-thi-yā. Nai ka-pā hin-thā wā-ni my-belly of-hunger I-whereas am-about-to-die. I my-father to will-go ma-thē-ni. "a-pā, nai-yā Lāi hin-thā pāp cho-cha-nū ahin-rūko uill-say, pāp "father, I Godto sin committed you-before-too sin chc-cha-nū. Nai-yē nang a-chā-pā ka-thok-nū ka-tik-mē. A-sarāworr sēn-klo committed. I your to-be fit-am-not. Servant hired khat mahai-pā-thūt-chā."; Ma-mang rip-dā ma-pā one hin-thā cause-me-to-be."  $H_{\mathcal{C}}$ got-up his-father to

arrbāngdā. Lam-klā ma-am-läni ma-yāng dai-dā. won-pi-sh-da, Place-for when-he-was-yet his-father came. sau. wea-compassionate, wang-chen-dā, ma-lolē arrpom-dā, yen-dā. Ās-thā ma-n5-oka the-de. his-neck embraced, Lissed. Thereupon his - 34 nai-yē Lāi hin-thā pāp cho-cha-nū 'a-pā. ahin-rako างนีว ยโดยตันสะหนัน father, Ι Gc:lsin committed you-before-too sin to woman. Phy ... Nai-yē nang a-chā-pā ka-thok-nū ka-tik-mē." Ma-ping ma-sarāwai-nēt your son to-be worthy-am-not? His-full m his sereants hin-thā thē-dā. · bū ka-thā-lang-lang horr-da 17-201-11 2-Du-111; to said. ' clothes best bringing my-ron carse-to-mear; ma-khūt len khūtpārr ap-nā, ma-libū khongh) lēn Marie Vite g his-hand 013 ring put-on, his-feet 011 shoes put-on; hawā ka-di-karrhē-lā. woi-khat ka-kin-jëripa-la; ka-mang-tuok, this from-being-dead, has-become-aure-brownse; again ha-ic is-lust. ka-do-fan-jak: nain chân-chê nean-che nuagai-in-che.' Awa-to-nú has-been-found-because; we eating drinking let-us-be-merry? Thus ma-mān nūngāi-chē. rejoiced. they

Han-thu-dem-pang ma-cha-pa ka-werr lau-tha ka-am. Ma-mang ma-in-thang At-that-time his-son elder field-to was. He his-house-towards marr-wannā khong ga-dūm karrdāni-dā a-jā-dā. Ma-mane ma-sarawore khat dancing ! ...d. in-coming drum beating  $H_{\mathcal{E}}$ Lis-sercant khēl-dā. Ma-saraworr 'ta-plē-dā?' arrtbäng-dä, 'a-não-pã on-dā. 'what-is-this?' asked.IIis-servant unswered. 'your brother calling. karrbang-da. Ma-mang ka-koi-ka-parrnā-ga-mā karrbāng-ā ē-dā illness-without has-come. He has-come saying khāng-dā.' Ao-thū ma-mang ma-plung pantra na-pāng pa-thi-dā has-given.' Thereupon he feust kis-mind your-father being-angry arrbäng-lüt ta-di ro-mē. Awā-kē ma-rame ma-pang wäng-thok-dā on-saying refused. Thisreason-for his-futher enter came-out  $f Ao ext{-th}ar u$ ma-mäng ma-pa hin-tha arrthang-da, 'a-son, ma-mā pa-thēm-dā. his-futher entreated. Thereupon ħe to answered, him kum hau-rak-pang nanga sepa ma-to-lan woi-khat-son nang a-pau-thē nai your service in-doing your commandment I 80-many once-even years hão-thū-kāk nangai nai a-kāng-rūp thũng ma-ka-toi-ka-mā-to-mē: nūngāi-nā my companions with disobey-did-not: nevertheless you ka-do-chang-rang kel ma-son khat ma-pi-mē. An-to-ma-nā nanga-ki ā-raŭ together-to-eat goatyoung one have-not-given. Whereas your wealth ma-pum kasu-bi hin-thā pi-dā po-māng-dā, na-chā-pā hawā marra-wān-thung-tā, wasted, your-son this all harlot to by-giving his-returning-on,

ma-pāng thē-dā, 'ka-chā-pā, nang nēmbē nang pantra khang-da.' Āo-thū you feast have-given.' Thereupon his-father said, · my-80n, you me-with ka-dēt-ka-mā ka-am-pamēn, nai-ka-hin ka-am-ki-makhai nanga-ki. Na-nao-pa ceaselessly are-in-company, me-to(with) whatever-is yours-is. Your-brother hawā ma-di-thung-ki, woi-khat ring-dā; ka-māng-ka-rahēl-dā, fā-dā; nāin this from-being-dead, again came-alive; from-being-lost, was-found; we ka-chūm.' nūngāi-nā kampā-dā ta-am it-is-proper.' merrily gladly to-remain

[No. 35.]

#### TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

#### KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

HIRÖI-LAMGÄNG.

### SPECIMEN IL

(STATE, MANIPUR.)

#### (Babu Bisharup Singh.)

A PIECE OF FOLKLORE TAKEN FROM THE LIPS OF A LAMGANG.

sangār-lē khat-lo ka-thok-dā. Arango pa-wā Sangar-na pa-wā Formerly wild-cat-with bird one-friendship was. Wild-cat bird hin-thā, 'in Āo-thū tong-pli-da?' ē-dā khēl-dā. 'nai-ki pa-wā hawā, 'house where-is?" to asked. Thereupon bird saying that, 'my in rū-būl ka-am.' ē-dā arrthäng-dä. Harakhun sangār-nā wā-dā replied. house bamboo-root is.' saying In-morning wild-cat went pa-wā a-ma-dā. Ma-mang ma-hān-sūt-nā hawā hawa pa-wā rū that bird was-not. He on-looking-up bird that bamboo ma-don-thā am-dā. Āo-thū ma-māng ma-plung pa-thi-dā, hang-yong-da, the-branch-on was. Thereupon he his-mind being-angry, on-jumping-up, ma-shon khat ka-yong-dā; aichāni-dā ma-khūt-thū mēēk ědá wáng-yong-dá. young one caught; on-his-going-to-eat his-hand-on dung voiding flew-away. Sangar hawā mēēk ma-chāk-nā kū-dūi-yā. 'Ma-dak ngālbi chā-bā-ni Wild-cat that dung on-eating found-it-nice. 'Flesh very if-eaten ta-yā-pang kū-dūi-rang,' ē-dā sangār hawā ngo-dā sūn-cha-dā. how-much (it)-would-be-nice, saying . wild-cat that angrily departed.

#### FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Once upon a time a wild cat made friends with a bird. One day he asked the bird where it lived and learnt that it was at the root of a bamboo. The next morning the wild cat went there, but the bird was gone. The cat then looked up and saw the bird on the branch of the bamboo. He got angry, jumped up, and s-ized a young bird. When he was going to cat it, the bird voided dung on his paw and flew away. The wild cat ate the dung and found it very good. 'How nice it would have been to eat the flesh,' he thought, and went angrily away.

## STANDARD WORDS AND SENTENCES

English	Ringkhül (Cachar).	Hallām (Sylhet).	Langrong (Hill Tipperah).
1. Cze	· In-klt · · ·	In-khūt	Khāt-kā, or pā-kāt .
2. Two .	In-ni	In-pi	In-ni-kā, ər pā-ni .
3. Three	In-tûm	In-thum	In-thūm-kā, or pā-tūm
4. Four	Min-li (mi-li) ·	Man-li	In-lik-kā, or pā-li .
5. Five	Ringa	Ra-ngā	Re-ngū-kū, or pū-ngū
6. Six	· Rušk (ga-rūk) .	Ā-rūk	Rūk-kā, or pā-rūk .
7. Seven	Sări	Sa-ri	Sarri-kā, <i>or</i> pā-sa <del>rri</del> .
8. Eight	· Giriit (ga-rit) .	Ā-riet	Riet-kā, or pā-riet .
9. Nime	Gusk	Å-kāok	Ū-kā, or pā-kūle .
0. Ten	Shōm	Sâm	Sâm-kā, or pā-shūom
l. Twenty	Shom-ni	Sâm inni	Shâm-an-ni-kā, or shâm-ni
2. Fifty	Shōm-ringā .	Såm rang	Shom-rungā
3. Hundred	- Ra-jā-kāt	Rāa khāt (or rā-jā khāt-tā)	Rā-jū-kā
14. I	Gē-mā	Kei, kei-mä	Kai-mā
15. Of me	Gen!	. Ka	Kai-mā-tā
16. Mina	Gëni	Kei-mā-tā, or kā-tā	Kai-mā-tā
17. We	· Gēmā-hai	Kei-ni (or kei-mā-ni)	Kai-mā-ni, or kai-ni .
18. Of us	Gēmā-hai-ni	. Kān	Kai-mā-ni-tā, or kai-ni-tā
19. Our	Gëmi-hai-ni	. Kei-ni kan-ta	Kai-mā-ni-tā, or kai-ni-tā
90. Thou	Nang	. Nang-ma, or mang	Nang-mā.
21. Of thee	. Naugmā	. N5	Nang-mā-iā
22. Thire	. Hangma	. Nang-mā-tā, or nā-tā	Wang-mā-tā
28. You	. Kangmā-hai	. Nang-ni-ughi (or nang-ma-	Nang-mā-ni
24. Of yes	Nangma-hai-nt .	Nan	Hang-mā-ni-tā .
M. Yew	. Neugrab-bai-ai .	Nang-ni nan-ta (or nang- ma-ni-ta).	Nang-mi-ni-ti

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	An-21.	int .	aleman al			4-1-2-2-2				
-	An-ni	*	•		•	A-Ci		•	•	
1	An-thu	lura Lura	•	•		. A-tlim			a *	
	Man-li	•	•	•	•	<b>312-12</b>	•		•	
	Ri-rg	٠.	•	•	-	D-n_1	•	•	*	•
	Ka-rik		-	•	•	U-rik	•	•	•	-
	Sari	•	•	•	•	SHE	•	*	•	
ı	Ka-riet		•	•	•	Arret	•	~	•	•
•	Kūo	•	•	•	-	1 A-ko	•	•	•	•
	Som	•	•	-	-	Som	•	-		
:	Som ni	•	•	-	-	Sem-di	•	•	-	
-	Som rā	inga.	•	•	-	Som-ra-1	ngā	•	•	- ;
3	Rēkhat	•	•	•	-	Arja-kha	et.	•	•	- !
† : ]	Kai	-	•	-	-	Kai	•	•	•	•
]	Kai-ka-	chaŭ	ng	-	•	Kai-ka-c	pons	g, ka-	-	• 1
]	Kai-ka-	ni	•	-	•	Kai	•	•	•	
1	Kai-ni	•	•	•	•	Kai-kā-n	i (k	ai-ni)	-	• ;
1	Kai-ni-l	ca-che	ung	-	*	Kai-ni ka	-ch	ಾರ್ಡ	•	• !
E	ζai-ni	-	-	-	•	Kai-ni	-	•	-	= [
ŀ	Nang	•	•	•	•	Nang	•	-	•	• :
ľ	vang-m	a-chai	Ban	•	-	Naug cho	ng,	na-	•	• ·
ľ	Vang-ne	-ni	•	-	-	Nang	•	•	•	- [
2	Nang-ni		-	•	-	Nang-ni	*	•	•	* ;
K	lang-ni	-na-ci	haŭrg	•	-	Nang-ni o	hon	g <b>-</b>	•	* E
N	(ang-ni	•	•	•	-	Nang-ni	•	•	•	
		·						1 6		i

K	lrên (	Manig	our).		Kōm (1	<b>fani</b> p	ur).
Khat	•	•	•	•	In-khat .	•	•
Ki-ni	•	•	-	•	I-nhi .	•	•
Kan-thü	m.	-	•	•	In-thūm .	•	•
Milli	•	•	•	•	Malli .	•	•
Ra-ngā	•	•	-	•	Ba-ngā .	•	-
Kū-rāk	•	•	•	-	Ka-rük .	•	•
Sâri	•	•	•	•	Sari .	•	•
Ki-rēt	•	•	•	•	Karët .	•	•
Kāo	•	•	•	•	Kū.	•	•
Som	•	•	•	•	Som .	•	•
Som-ni	-	•	-	•	Sōm-nhi	•	•
Som ra-1	ngā	•	•	•	Som-ranga	•	•
Rai-khai	<b>t</b> .	•	•	•	Bē-khat .	•	•
Kai	•	•	•	٠	Kai .	•	٠
Kai chon	g, ka	-	•	•	Ka-tong	•	•
Kai-tä	•	•	•	•	Kai-si .	•	•
Kai-ni	•	-	•	•	Kai-ni .	•	•
<b>Kai</b> -ni el				•	Kai-ni-tōng	•	•
Kai-ni-ti		•	•	•	Kai-ni-si	-	
Nang		•	•	-	Nang .	•	•
Mang ch		2.8.	•	-	Nang-töng	•	•
Mang-ta		•	•	•	Nang-ta-si	•	•
Mang-mi		•	• •	•	Namg-mi .	•	•
Mang-ni		1.3			Nangni-tong	•	•
Kang-ni	43.	<del>-</del>		- 1	Nang-ni-si	•	•

# IN THE OLD KUKI DIALECTS.

Pūrūm	(Marij	wr).		Anāl (M	alijus	r).		H 5 Lamping ()	(anipu+	•	Engl ob
A-khā .	•	•		The state of the s				Khat .			·
A-ni .	•	•		A-nhi .		•		Ki-mi	•	•	2. Two.
In-thüm .	•	•		A-thum .		. '	•	Ka-lum			C. Three.
Illi .		•		Palli .		•		Pilli		•	4. Four.
Ra-ngā .	•	•		Pa-ngi			•	Fa-ra-nga .			J. Five.
A-rāk .	•	•	•	Ta-rūk .	•		•	Tō-rāk	•	•	6. Six.
Sēri .	•	•		Tak-si	•	•		Tik-siyā .	•		7. Seven.
Ari .		•	•	Ta-rik .	•	•		Ti-ret	•	•	8. Eight.
A-kū .	•	•	•	Ta-kū .	•	•	•	Ta-kā	•	•	9. Nine.
A-som.	•	•	•	Som .	•	•		Sem	•		10. Ten.
Som-ni .	•	•	•	Som-nhi .		•	•	Som ki-ni	•		11. Twenty.
Som-ngā.	•	•	•	Som-pa-nga		•	•	Som pa-ra-ngă .	•		12. Fifty.
Ri-yā-h .	•	•	•	A-yā-khō	•	•	•	Arja khat .	•		13. Hundred.
Kai .	•	•	•	Ni .	•	•	-	Nai			14. I.
Ka tong, ka-	•	•	•	Ni ka-pē, ka-	•	٠	•	Naik pääthä, ka-			15. Of me.
Ka-tā .	•	•	•	Ni ka .	•	•	•	Nai ka-ti		-	16. Mine.
Ka-ni .	•	•	•	Ni-hing .	•	•	•	Nain			17. We.
Ka-ni tong	•	•	•	Ni-hing ka-pë		•	•	Nain pätithä .	•		18. Of us.
K-ni-tä.	•	•	•	Ni-hing .	•	•	٠	Naiki-ki .	•		19. Our.
g and "	•	•	-	Nang .	•	•	•	Naugā	•		20. Thou.
Vang teng, na	•	•	•	Nang kapa, na-	•	•	•	Ranga plaths, ne-	•		21. Of thes.
lang-tä	•	•	-	Name .	•	•	٠	Nangi hin .	•		22. Thine.
langai .	•	•	•	Nang-hing	•	•		Hangin	•	•	23. You.
langai tong	•	•	•	Nang-hing	•	•	•	Nanga-na patithe	•		84. Of you.
langai-44.	•	•		Nang-king	•	•	-	Nanganaki .	•	•	25. Year.

ه. [چىدىغ	tı.			Ringlik	3) (C	achar).	•	4	H	alläm (S	Sylhet).			Langro	g (H	ill Tipp	erah).	
20. Ho .	•	•	• ; •	Āmā .		•	•		Āmā (or	ā-ni-cl	ha)	•	•	Ā-ni	•	•	•	•
27. Of him		•	•	Āmā-nī .				٠ .	Ā.	•	•		•	Ā-ni-tā	•		•	•
-+ 111a -	•		•	Āmā-ni .			, ,		Ā-mā-ā-t tā).	ā, or	ā-tā (a	r ā-ni	-	Ā-ni-tā			•	•
is. They	•	•	•	Āmū-hai .		•			-	āi (or	An-m	ā-ni)		Ān-mā-ni		•		•
o. Of them			•	Āmā-hai-nī	,	•			Ān	•	•	•		Ān-mā-ni	i-tā		•	•
El. Their		•	-	Āmā-hai-nī		•	•	•	Ān-ni-ng (or an	gāi ān- -mā-ni	ta, 01	n än-i	ā	Ān-mā-ni	i-tā			
SI. Herá		•	•	Güt (küt)			•		Kāt	•	•	•	-	Kāt	•		•	
53. Fut		•	-	Kō .		•	•	-	Ke		•	•		Fēi, or k	еау	•	•	•
34. Nose			- ;	Nak (när)	•				Nār	•		•	-	Nar	•	•	•	•
35. Eye .	•	•	•	A-mig or a	mit	(mit)			Mit	•		•	-	Mit	•		•	•
36. Mouth	•	•	•	Ā-mūr .		•	•	-	Mür, or	bāy <sup>1</sup>	•	•	-	Műr				•
37. Tooth	•	•	•	Ha .		•			Hā	•			-	Hā	•			•
38, Ear .	•	•	•	Mi-gor (mi	gür)	)	•		Kor (or	kūr)	•		-	Kuor	•	•	•	•
39, Hair	٠	•	•	Sbām (sār	a)	•	•		Sām	•	•	•	-	S <b>ā</b> m	•	•	•	•
40. Eest	•	•	٠	Ā-lū .		•	•	•	Lā	•	•	•		Lā	•	•	•	•
41. Tongue	•	٠	•	Mi-lē (mē-	lė)	•	•		Ma-lei	•	•	•		Lai	•	•	•	•
42. Belly	•	•	•	A-ping .		•	•	•	Vол	•	•	•	-	Vân, or	pāng	•	•	•
4S. Back	٠	٠	•	Å-röl (rūč	ing)		•	•	Racong	•	•	•	-	Rang	•	٠	•	•
44. Iron	•	•	•	Tir .		•	•	•	Thir	•	•	•	•	Thir	•		•	
45. Gold	•	•	•	Rangajir	(rike;	g-mà-	jāk)	٠	Rang I	kiiohiik ).	(or	ring	ă-	Ranga-o	bāk	•	•	
46. Silver	•	•	*	Sham	•	•	•	•	Sam, er	r rupp	<b>Li</b>	*	•	Dhar	•	•	•	•
47. Father	•	٠	•	Ga-pū .	•	•	•	•	Pi	•	•	•	•	Pä	•	•	•	
48. Maber	•	*	•	Ga-nung	(nū)	•	•	٠	Ns	•	•	•	٠	Na	•	•	•	
40. Prother		• ,	•	Ga-tiph (	r).					•	•	•	•	Nai	•	•	•	
40, Sister		*.		. Си-й-на ( (устида	<b>"</b>		-wham	gui	Stran		, •	•	•	Par-na	•	•	٠	
Bi. Man	***			. Mirlim (	rei-ri	me)			Mi, mi	riem, <sup>4</sup>	pā nā	•		Mi-pa,	or pë	-mil	•	
50. Woman	ايست	A production of the second		. Napang	•				Na-pi	-			( *	Mi-ac,	or nii	-bend.	•	

Mile in the spring configure of the smooth, they also includes the ravely.

Opin, alder neether a mile of younger feeter.

Research being:

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Narak, armi	• •		-1-1 n.s		н.		
Na-tak-ka-chali	r.eg		A-mi (la)	ಚಿತ್ರದೇ ಕಿಕ್ಕ			
A-mä-tä	-	•	، هيدان هي			• .	
A-mā-nī, an-mā	-zi.	• 1	Arritani.	-	-	•	
A-mā-nī chaŭng	•	•	<b>A-</b> 2214-211 U	i Jag	-	,	
A-mā-nī .			A-mi-ri.		-	•	
Kut .	- •	• !	Khāt .		-	•	:
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Mur .	• •		A-nērrko	- •			Mark. 420
Ha .		•	A-ba				a, coldan a er Bad
Küor .	. •	•	Arrkorr	- •	•		PART Men
Sam .		•	Sam	•	•		APPENDED
Lū .		. •	Lu	•	•	•	Red Lines William
Lai .			Mallai	-	•	-	-
Won .	- •	•	Won	-	-	•	-
Ting .	•		Karrnam	•	•		-
Thir .	-	•	Thirr	•	•		Market has
Eängkachak			Rangkao	balc	•		-
Rafai .	•	•	Dängkä	•	-	- •	-
А-ра .			Ка-ра	•	~	•	-
A-ma .	-	•	Kā-nā	•	•	• •	ar-se-unflavious
A-nai-pang-pa	•		Ka-nai-p	ang-pi	i.	• •	The strangers of the
Ka-char-na	•	-	Ka-mer-	a Ca	-	** **	
Pacal .	•	• •	A-pa	•	•	• •	•
Numai .	•	• •	No-parg		<b>-</b> .	•	•
1			1	K-O	<u>a</u> _	907	

Aimol (Man	lipur).		Chiru (Manipur).
Na-tak, a-mā .	•	•	A-mā
Na-tak-ka-chaŭi	og .	•	A-mā chong, a
A-mā-tā	-	•	A-mā
A-mā-ni, an-mā-	-ni .		A-mā-ni
A-mā-ni chaūng	•	•	A-mā-ni chong
A-mā-ni		•	A-mā-ni
Kūt	•	•	Khūt
Ke	• •	•	Kē
När .	• •	•	Närr
Mit .		-	Mik
Mür .	• •	•	A-nērrko
на .	• •	•	A-hā
Kūor .	. •	•	Arrkorr
Sam .	•	•	Sam
Lū .		•	Lt
Lai .	•	. •	Mallai
Won .	•	•	Won
Ting .	•	•	Karrnam
Thir .	• •	•	Thire
Kāngkachak	-	•	Rängkachak
Rufai .	•	•	Dāngkā
A-pa .	•	•	Ка-ра
A-nū .	• •	•	Kū-nū
A-nāi-pang-pā		•	Ka-nai-pang-pā
Ka-char-nü	•		Ka-sarr-nü -
Pasal .	•	-4	- 1
Numai .	• •		Nū-pāng

	Kolrër	а (Ма	nipur).			රිටක (	(Manig	(ruc)
A-mā	•	-	•		- A-mā	•	•	•
A-mā	chong	g, a-	•		· A-mā-t	ōng	-	
A-mā-	tā.	•	•		. A-mā-s	i .	•	
An-mi	i-ni	•	•		. An-mā-	ni	-	•
An-mā	i-ni el	ong	•		- An-mā-	ni-to:	ng.	
An-mā	-ni-tā		•		- An-mā-	ni-si	•	
Kūt	•	•	•		Ka-kū		-	•
Kē .	-				Ka-kē	•	•	•
<b>A-</b> nārr	-	•	•		Ka-nhār	• •	•	•
A-mit	•	•	•	•	Ka-mhit		•	•
A-nērr	•	•	-	•	Ka-nhēr	•	•	•
A-hā	•	•	•	•	Ka-hā	•	•	•
A-kūwo	rr	•	•	•	Ka-kür	<u>.</u>	-	•
A-sam	•	•	•	•	Ka-sam	•	•	•
A-lū	•	•	-	•	Ka-lü	•	•	_
A-lai	•	•	•	-	Ka-ma-la	i	•	-
A-won	•	•	•	•	Ka-wōn	•	•	-
A-ting	-	•	•	•	Ka-thüm	•	•	•
Chirr	•	•	•		Thir	-	•	-
Sonā	, •	•	•	-	Sanā	-	-	-
Dangkā	(same	as r	upe <b>s</b> )		Dangkā	•	•	•
Ka-pā	-	•	•	-	Ка ра	•	•	•
Sa-nfi	•	•	•	-	Ka-nū		•	•
Ci-nūi	•	•	-	-	Ka-nāi		•	-
Ci-charr	-nü	•	•	-	Ka-32:-11fi		•	•
Lsan	-	•	•	-	Paso .		•	-
Tümai	•	<b>.</b> :	.•	-	Numhai .		-	•
		100		. 1				

:	Pürün	Ma (Ma	nipur).			Anāl (	Manipu	r).		Hirōi-	Lamgā	ing (Ma	nipur).		English.
Mo-jū	•		•		Amā-be	· .	•	•		Ma-mā	•		•	•	26. Не.
Ma ton	g−jū,	ma-		•	Amā-bē	ka:pē	, ma-	٠,		Ma-mā	pāūth	ië, ma		,	27. Of him.
Ma-tā	•	•			Amā-bē		•	•		Ma-mā l	ci				28. His.
Ma-ni-c	hū		•		Amā-hi	ng			•	Ma-mān	•				29. They.
Ma-ni t	ong		•		Amā-hi	ng ka	pē			Ma-mān	pāūt	hē	•		30. Of them.
Ma-ni-c	hū	•	•	•	Amā-hi	ng	•			Ma-māni	i.	•	•		31. Their.
Kūt	-	•	•		Ka-kū				•	A-khūt	•	•		•	32. Hand.
Kē	•	•	•	•	Ka-khū	•		•	•	A-khū	•	•			33. Foot.
Nātūng	•	•	•	•	Ka-nhāl	•		•	•	A-nārr	•	•	•		34. Nose.
Mit	•	•	•	•	Ka-mhi	•	٠	•	٠	A-mit	•	•	•		35. Eye.
Bāo	•	•	•	•	Ka-nhin	g-kol	•	•	•	A-nēr <del>r</del>	•	•	•		36. Mouth.
Hā		•	•		Ka-hā	•	•	•	•	A-hā	•	•	•	•	37. Tooth.
Kürr	•	•	•		Ka-nā	•	•	•		Ā-ka-nā	•	•	•	•	38. Ear.
Sam	•	•	•	•	Ka-sam	•	•	•		A-sam	•	•	•	•	39. Hair.
Lü	•	•	•	•	Ka-lū-cl	ıð	•	•		A-lū	•	•	•	•	40. Head.
Lai	•	•	• '	•	Ka-bi-li	•	•	•		A-plai	•	•	•	•	41. Tongue.
Won	•	•	•	•	Ка-ро	•	•	•	·	A-poi	•	•	•	•	42. Belly.
Fing	•	•	•		Ka-pang	•	•	•	-	A-pang	• ,	•	•	$\cdot$	43. Back.
Ata	•	•	•	•	Thal	•	•	•	•	Thirr	•	•	•	$\cdot  $	44. Iron.
Sonā	•	•	,	•	Sanā	•	•	•	•	Sēnā	•	•	•	-	45. Gold.
Rūpā	•	•	•	•	Lūpā	•	•	•		Lüpä	•	•	•	•	46. Silver.
Ma-pā	•	•	•	•	Pā	•	•	•	-	<b>А</b> -ра	•	•	•	•	47. Father.
Ma-nü	•	•	•		No	•	•	•	+	A-nü	•	• .	•, .	•	48. Mother.
Ma-na-ti	•	•	٠.	•	Ka-në	•	•	•	-	A-não	•	•	•	•	49. Brother.
\-sarr-nā		٠	•	-	A-chalo	• '	•	•	•	A-charr	•	•	•	•	50. Sister.
V-pā	•	.!	•	•	Sēn-pā	•	.•	•	•	Pasēl-pā	•	•	•	•	51. Man.
Tamai	•,	•	•	•	Sē-nū	•	•			Si-na	•	•	•	•	52. Woman.

	Engli	sh.			Rāngkhōl (	Cacha	r).	Hallām (Sylhet). Langrong (Hill Tipperzh	).
53. Wif	e	•		•	Adaounā (daun	nā)		Dong-mā Nữ-pũi	•
54. Chil	đ	•			Nai-tē .	•		Nāi, or nāi-pāng Nāi-pang	•
55. Son		•		٠.	Bashal, (nai bā	-sāl),	nai-tē.	Nāi, or nāi-pāng	•
56. Dau	ghter		•	,	Nű-päng-tē	•		Nāi nū-pāng, or sā-nū . Nāi-nū	•
57. Slav	e	•	•	•	Shūōk .	•		Sūok Sēl	•
58. Cult	ivator	•	•		Lü-jōn-hai	•		Ālachai loivāt³	
59. Shep	pherd	•	•	•	Shilāvai .	•		Rākhāl <sup>4</sup>	
60. God		•	•	•	Jābai, jōbai, P tīn).	ā-thi	in¹ (Pā-	Pā-tiyen Khūā-bang	•
61. Dev	il	•	•	•.	Pathiim <sup>l</sup> shān shā-māk).	ouk (	(Pā-tīn-	Khori	
62. Sun	•	•	•	•	Mīshā (mī-sā)	•		Ni-sā	•
63. Moo	n	•.	•	٠	Tā	•		Tha Thla	•
64. Star	;	•	•	•	Ārshī .	•	•	Ār-si Ār-chi	•
65. Fire		•	•	•	Mēi (mē)	•		Mēi Mēi	•
66. Wat	er	•	•	•	Dui .	•	•	Tāi	•
67. Hou		• .	•	٠	Īn, Iju (smai house).	I ter	nporary	In In	•
68. Hor		•	•	•	Gorai (sā-kor)		: •	Sā-kor Sā-kor	•
69. Cow		•	•	٠	Shërha (shërha	it)		Serāt Serāt	•
70. Dog		•	•	•	Ūi.	•	• •	Ŭi (or wāi) Wāi	•
71. Cat		•	•	-				A-meng Meng	٠
72. Cocl		•	•	•	Ārjār (ārkōng)			Ār Ār	•
73. Duc		•	•	٠	Vāto (vātok)	•	• •	Vātok Vāi-āk	•
74. Ass		•	•	•	Sākōr .	•		Gāddā	
<ul><li>75. Cam</li><li>76. Bird</li></ul>		•	•	•		••		Mū-king-kang Mū-king-kang .	•
77. Go		•	•		Vär (är)	•	• :	Vā	•
78. Eat		•	•	•	Phō-rō (fō-rō)			Sõro (sing.), sõ-roi (plur.) . Kül-nä (Infinitive) .	•
79. Sit	•	•	•	•	Nē-rē, phur-rē	(fāk-	rō) .	Sā-ro, er nē-ro Fāk-nā, er nek-nā .	•
, ,	•		•	•	Toi-ro .	•	• •	In-sing-ro Thing-na	•

Mor a in different villages.
 Nāi nā pāng means also 'girl', jā-nā means only 'daughter.'
 Lit. jlum cutter.
 A Bungali word.

Aimol (Manipu	<b>:).</b>		Chire (M	Enipez	-)-	
A-lom-nū .	•	•	A-rüngük	c		-
Nāi-tē-pā .	•	-	Nāi-tō .	•	•	-
Anāi-pasal-nāi	•	-	Ka-sā-pā .	•	•	-
Anāi-nūmai-nāi	•	-	Kā-sū-nū	•	٠,	-
Swok-pā	-		Souk .	•	•	-
Laŭ-chon-mi-keng	-	-	Loi-nēi hāi	•	•	-
Yāŭ sēl-pa kēng	•	-	Keber sen hai	•	•	-
Pathien .	-	-	Pithen, Pathir	ı	•	-
Khotang	•	-	Rāikho .	-	•	-
Ni	-		Ani .	•	-	-
Tha	•	-	Tha .	•	•	-
Arsi	•	•	Ārrsi .	•	-	-
Mai	•	٠	Mai .	•	•	-
Tai	•	•	Tai .	•	•	-
In	•	•	In .	-	•	
Sēkor	•	•	Sakorr .	•	•	•
Sērāt	•	•	Shi .	-	•	•
Ŭi · ·	•	•	Ŭi .	•	•	-
Mēng	•		Hūitūng .	-	•	
Ār-khong .	-	•	Ārr-khong	-	•	٠.
Wātok .	-	•	Watok .	-	-	-
Gādhā . •	•	-	Gadha .	•	•	•
Tt	*	•	Ūt .	•	-	•
Wātē	•	•	Vā .	•	•	•
Ka-che	•	•	Ā-shē .	•	•	•
Ka-chä	•		Ka-shāk .	•	-	-
A-ating	•	•	A-sū -	•	-	-

Ko	lrën (N	[anipu	r).		K	öm (Ma	nipur	).	
Ki-nūma	i	•	•	•	Ka-nūm	hai	•	•	•
Nāi-pang	<b>:</b> -	•	•	-	Nāi-pan	g.		•	-
Ki-cha-p	ā.	•	•	•	Ka-sā-pā	ι.	-	•	
Ki-cha-n	n.	•	-	-	Ka-sā-nī	ì.	•	•	
Ki-soūk-	pā	-		-	Shak	•		•	•
Ki-lai-th	o pass	1	•	-	Lhai-ga-	thok	•	•	
Yāo khāl	pasal	L	•	-	Kyāyōng	g-kasër	•	•	•
Pathien	•	•	•	-	Pathin	•	•	•	•
Pathiën s	a-mal	ς .	•		Ramkhū	rlız	•	•	•
Ni	-	•	•	-	Ka-ni	•			•
Tha	-	•	•	-	Thā			•	•
Āsi	•	•	•	-	Ārsi	_	-	•	-
Mai	. •	•	•		Mai	•		-	_
Tūi		•	•	*	Tūi	•	•	•	_
fn	•	•	•	•	In .	•		•	_
Sakorr	-	•	•	-	Sakor				-
Serāt	•	•	•	-	Sërhau	•	•		-
ΰi	•	•	•	-	Ūί	•	-	•	_
Ngāitong		•	•	-	Mëng-të		-	-	-
Ārr-khon	g		•	-	Ār-khōng	;	-	•	-
Atok	•	•	•	-	Ātōk	•	-		_
Gādhā	•	•	•		Gadha	• .	•	•	_
Ūt `	•	•	•	-	Üŧ		•	•	-
Wa	•	•	•	•	Wa	• .	•	-	-
Ka-chē	•	•	•	-	Kasö		•	•	_}
A-chā-yē	-	•	•	-	Ka-85	• .	•	•	-
A-ong-ye		•	•		In-söng	• .	•	•	-
K G				1	)	_		_	

rur	ūm (d	Tani	,ur),			rnar (1	Manipu	ır).		Hitői	Lamg	āng (I	Lavipu	r).	English.
Ma-nama	i		•	•	A-sē-nū					A-name	ıi		•	•	53. Wife.
Jngā	•	•	•		Amo ch	arā				Komo		•			54. Child.
Ma-sa-nā	ā-bā	•			Sēn-pā	chari	i.	٠,		A-chā-p	. B				55. Son.
la-sa-nāi	ì-nű		•		Sè-nū c	harā				A-chā-n	ı <b>ü</b>				56. Daughter.
A-sū	•		•		Mi-nai	•	•	•		A-sarāw	orr	•			57. Slave.
aū-ēbā	. '		•		Shiwa			•		Laŭ kū-	nüm.	mi	•		58. Cultivator.
Tāo-sēl-bā			•	,	Yāo shē	l-mā	mi		•	Yāo ka-	sēl m	i.	•		59. Shepherd.
hāirū	•			•	Lē	•	•		•	Lāi					60. God.
lihirhā (ç	host	)	ı		Ditto	•		•		Lē-ka-lo	mg		•		61. Devil.
ï.,	•	٠		•	A-ni			•		Ki-ni					62. Sun.
hā .	i	•	•	•	Thā			•		Thā	•		•	•	63. Moon,
rsi .		•	•	•	Būtsha		•	•	•	Būrsi	•				64. Star.
lai .			•		Mhi		•			Mai	•		•	•	65. Fire.
<del>t</del> i .			•		Dā		•			Di				•	66. Water.
ı .		•	•		Ēm, in	•	•			Īn.	•		•		67. House.
akorr .		•	•	•	Sakol					Sakol		•	•		68. Horse,
i1 .		•	•	•	Shal					si	•		•	-	69. Cow.
i .		•	•	•	Wi .			•	٠	Ŭi	•		•		70. Dog.
autong		•	•	•	Yotē			•	•	Yomē		•	•		71. Cat.
r-hong-p	i,	•		•	Hal			•		Harr	•	•	•	-	72. Cock.
r-tok .		•	•	•	Ngānū	•			٠	Ngānū	•	•		•	73. Duck
ādhā .			•	•	Gādhā				-	Gadhā		•	•	•	74. Ass.
t.		•	•	•	Ūt	•		•		Ūŧ	•	•	•		75. Camel.
-wā .	•	-	•		Pāhā	•	•	•	•	Pa-wā	•.	•	•		76. Bird.
ieng .		•	•		I-chē	•	•	•	-	Chët-pa	• •	•		-	77. Go.
bāk .	•		•	•	Ka-chā-m	ang	•	•		A-chā	•	•	• .	•	78. Eat.
ng .		•			Wong-wā	,				Yüke-eng	5	÷			79. Sit.

English.		Rångkhöl (C#char).	Hallām (Sylhet).	Langrong (Hill Tipperah).
80. Com		Hong-ro	Hong-ro, or hō-ro	Hong-na
84. Beat		Vō-rō, jēm-rō·	Jem-ro	Hem-nā
82. Stand .		Darhai-rō (nī-rō)	In-thoi-rol, or In-ding-ro	Ngir-nā
83. Die		Ti-rō	Thi-ro · · · ·	Thi-nā
84. Give .		Pē-rō	Рё-го	Pek-nā
85. Run .		Å-rōt-rō	Tân-ro	Tlai-nā
86. Up		Ā-jūng-ting	Chung-a	Chung
87. Near .		Ā-nai	Ānāi-teng (or ānāigh) .	Ā-nāigù
38. Down .	• •	Ā-shūk-ting	Noyā, or thoy-ā	Nai-ā
89. Far		Ā-lhā	Ālāk, (or allāk)	Alla
90. Before .	• •	Muthanā (mā-ten-ā).	Mā-ton (or man-theng) .	Mā-teng
91. Behind .	• •	Ā-nung, ā-nung-ting .	Nūk-ā (or nūk-teng) .	Nung-teng
92. Who .		Тй-то	Tū, or tū-ma	Tū-mā
93. What .	• •	7-mo	Ī-mā	Î-mâ
94. Why .	• •	Itiroiā (ī-mā-nī)	Hā-ong-mâ (or i-rang-mâ).	
95. And .		•••••	Hā-nūk-chū (or nūk-chū) .	Ch <del>u</del> n
96. But	• •	Dārō	Ā-nūk-chū, or imoti-le-chū	Ch <del>ū</del> n
97. If	•	Hā (zh)	Jodi <sup>3</sup>	Chūn
99. No	• •	Hā (ōh)	A	A, or a-chang .
100. Alas .		Hejo	Heë (or mang)	A-ai, or chang-na
101. A father .		Ā-pā; my father, ga-pā;	Äh-āh (or a-pam)  Pā in-khāt-ā	A-pam
102. Of a father		your father, në-pā; his father, ā-pā. (G)a-pā-mō	Pā in-khāt-ā	Pā-tā
103. To a father				
104. From a fathe	r.	(G)a-pā-lē, (g)a-pā-tāk	70.	Pā rū-ai
165. Two fathers		jūnga. Ā-pā innī	Pi in-ni-kā	Pā ni-kā.
106. Fathers	• , •	(G)a-pā-hai		Pā-hēi
Table Sit Call	<u> </u>	1 Tet aries		

Aimol (Manipur).	Chiru (Manipur).
A-yong	A-hong
A-vē	Ā-jēm
A-ngir	Ā-ding
A-thi	Ā-thi
A-pēk-yoi	Pē-ro
A-tān	Ā-tān
A-sak-teng	Alling
A-nāiyoi	A-nāi
Thang-teng	Thang-teng
A-lāk	Āllāk
Ka-ma-ton	Ka-māi-kūng
Ka-nūk-tiēng	Kā-nūk
Tū-mo	Tā-mo
I-mo	I-mo
Iraihi-mo	I-ranga-mo
Khanakhanako	Tank (a termination)
Ko (it is always suffixed to the root of a verb).	Pakhālo
Ditto	Atu
Â	Ö (sounds like 'o' in 'on').
Ni-mā	Ni-mā
E-kā-nū	Kū-nū (The word 'mother' or 'father' is uttered to express pity or grief).
A-pā ankhat	Ka-pā khat
A-pā khat-ningko	Ka-pā khat
A-pā khat-yōng	Ka-pā khat ding
A-pā khat-yēng jagin .	Ka-pā khat dingā
A-pā anni	Ka-pā a-di
A-pā ngāi	Ka-pā hāi

Kolrên (Manipur).	Köm (Manipur).
A-wā-yē	Ka-hong
A-wel-ye.	Wük
A-nifr-yē.	Ngir
A-thi-yē	Ka-thiyō
A-pē	Ka-pē
A-tan-ye	Ka-tān
A-sak	Sak
A-nai-tak-ā	Ka-nhāi
Thang-tiyeng	. Thai
A-lāk	. Ka-lhā
A-mā-tiyeng	. A-mhā
A-nung-tiyeng.	. Ka-ka-nhting
Khoy-ē-ni	. Tū-mō
Ang-ē	. Hāi-mō
Ang-sik-ē-ni	. Hāi-lhai-yā-mō
Hāko	Khanching
Amāko	Khanchū
Ko (a termination to suffixed).	be Yūwālēnchū (a termination)
O (sounds like 'o' in 'of'	). o
Ni-mak	. E-mak
Aya-ka-nü	O a-ruti
Ki-pā khat pā	· Ka-pā in-khat
Ki-pā khat tā	. Ka-pā in-khat
Ki-pā khat yišng .	. Ka-pā in-khat-nhēng .
Ki-pā khat yiēnga .	Ka-pā in-khat-nhēng-ā
Ki-pā ki-ni	. Ka-pā inhi
Ki-pā an-tam	. Ka-pā ka-tam
K-0 G-806	- 1

Pûrûm (	Manipu	r).	Anāl (M	mipor).	•	*******	Mi T-I employ (Te	ත්ව පද්ධ		Fire lists.
Wā-tik .	•		A-wā-wā.	4	•	•	Arr-tang .	4.		80. Come.
Wal .	•		A-bū-mā .	•	•		A-prai		- [	Sl. Beat.
Ngir .	•		Wa-rē-wā		,		Jarip			82. Stand.
A-thi .			Tha-kā .	•	•	•	Ki-di-yā			83. Die.
Pē .	•		Ka-pě .		•		А-рі	•	-	84. Give.
A-tān .	•	• . •	Chom-jā .	•	•		Ka-chēn-ā .			85. Run.
A-chüng .	٠.		A-thā-hā.	•	•	$\cdot$	Tün-thäng .			86. Up.
A-nāyā .	•		Hūlā-hā .	•	•		Ka-nāi-tēk .	•		87. Near.
Ā-thūyā .	•		Ka-ti-hā.	•	•	•	Ti-thā	•	-	88. Down.
A-lā .	•	• •	Hai-so-wākā	•	•	•	Lam-ka-lā .			89. Far.
Ma-mā .	•		Ka-dū-hā	•	•	•	A-dū-thang .	•	•	90. Before.
Ma-nū-wā	•		Ka-thal-hā	•	•	•	A-dil-tha	•	•	91. Behind.
A-tū .	•		A-kū-ti .	•	•	•	Ко	•		92. Who.
ī	•		Dā-pā .	• ,	•	•	Tā	•	٠	93. What.
Iyē ajē .	•		Dâ-wa-wa-di	•	•	•	Ta-ki	•	•	94. Why.
Nā-nā .	•		Dal dala thi-	nang	•	٠	Ta-dā	•	•	95. And.
Nā-chū .	•		Tū .	•	•	•	Padāinū	•	•	96. But.
Yāŭ-lē-chū	•		Ni-bē .	•	•	•	Tang (This is a ter suffixed to the reverb).			97. If.
Ŏ (sounds li	ke ' o '	in 'of').	Aing .	•	•	•	O (pronounced like 'on').	s <sup>i</sup> o '	in	98. Yes.
Ä-nok .	•		Māi .	٠	•	•	Mang	•	•	99. No.
A-nū-wo.	•		Nű-wä-pārān		•	•	А-пй а-ра .	•	•	100. Alas.
Ma-pā a-khā	• •	•	Ma-pā khē (h	is fath	er one	).		•	•	
Ma-pā a-khi		•	Ma-pä khē	•	•	•	A-pā khat hin-ki	٠	•	102. Of a father.
Ma-pü a-khi	ningă		Ma-pā khē kū		•	•	A-pā khat hin-thā	•	•	103. To a father.
Ma-pā a-khā	ning#	.•	Ma-pā kbē kū	nggi	•	•		•	٠	104. From a father.
Ма-ра а-пі	•		Ma-pā anhi	•	•	•	A-pā ki-nī	:	٠	•
Ma-pā a-tam	L . •		Ma-pă hing	•	•	•	A-pā ka-nēm-kat	•	٠	106. Fathers.

English.	Rängkhöl (Cachar).	Hallām' (Sylhet).	Langrong (Hill Tipperah).
107. Of fathers	(G)a-pā-hai-nī or -mō	Pā-ngāi-hā	Pā-hēi-tā
108. To fathers	(G)a-pā-hai-kā	. Pā-ngūi kom	Pā-hēi-neng-ā
109. From fathers	(G)a-pā-hai-jung-tak, āhai tak.	- Pā-ngāj tākā-tā	
110. A daughter .	Nū-pāng-tē	. Nāi nū-pāng in-khāt-ā .	Nū-pang
111. Of a daughter .	Nū-pāng-tē-mō	Nāi nū-pūng in-khāt-ā .	Nű-pang-tä
112. To a daughter .	Nū-pāng-tē-kā .	. Nāi nō-pāng in-khāt kom .	Nū-pang-neng-ā
113. From a daughter	Nü-päng-tak jünga .	. Näi nü-päng in-khāt tātā	*****
114. Two daughters	Nū-pāng-hai-innī, nū-pān hai-nī.	g- Nāi nā-pāng in-ni-kā .	Nū-pang inni-kā
115. Daughters .	Nū-pāng-hai	. Nāi nā-pāng-ngāi-hā (or -ngāi).	Nū-pang-hēi
116. Of daughters .	· Nū-pāng-hai-mō •	Nāi nū-pāng-ngāi-hā .	Nū-pang-hēi-tā
117. To daughters .	Nű-pāng-hai-kā	. Näi nü-päng-ngäi-kom .	Nű-pang-hői-neng-ä
118. From daughters	Nű-päng-hai-jung-tak	Nāi nữ-pāng-ngāi-tākā-tā	•••••
119. A good man .	· Mi-riim āshā	Pā-sāl khāt āssā .	Mi tha
120. Of a good man.	- Āshā mi-riim-mō .	Pā-sāl khāt āssā	Mī ţhā-tā
121. To a good man .	- Āshā mi-riim-kā	Pā-sāl khāt āssā-kom	. Mī thā-neng-ā
122. From a good man	Āshā mi-riim-tak; āju tak.	ng- Pā-sāl khāt āssā-tātā	
123. Two good men .	Mi-riim āshā innī .	Pā-sāl in-nik āssā (or m sā-n-ni-kā).	i Mī ṭhān-ni-kā
124. Good men .	• Mi-riim-hai āshā	Pā-sāl āssā-ngāi	. Mī thā-hēi
125. Of good men .	Ashā mi-riim-hai-mō	Pā-sāl āssā-ngāi	Mī thā-hēi-tā
126. To good men .	. Āshā mi-riim-hai-kā	Pā-sāl āssā-ngāi-kom	. Mi tha-hei-neng-a
127. From good men	. Āshā mi-riim-hai-jī tak, -āhai-tak.	nng- Pā-sāl āssā-ngāi tākā-tā	
128. A good woman .	. Nū-pāng āshā	Nū-pāng khūt āssā .	. Nū-pang thā
129. A bad boy .	. Nai-tē shā-māk .	Nāi pā-sāl khāt āssiet ( sā-māk).	or Nāi-pā ā-ṭhā-lai
130. Good women .	. Nū-pāng-hai āshā .	. Nú-pāng āssā-ngāi .	. Nū-pang thā-hēi
131. A bad girl .	. Nü-pāng-tē shā-māk .	. Näi nű-päng khāt ässiet ( sā-lai)	or Năi-nũ thă-lai
132. Good	. Āshā (ā-sā)	. Āssā (or ā-sā)	. Ā-ţhā
133. Better	. Āshā (ā-sā-ōl) .	. Ā-mū nekin āssā .	

137	
Aimol (Manipur).	Chiru (Manipur).
A-pā ngāi-inko	Ka-pā hāi
A-pā ngāi-yēng	Ka-pā hāi ding
A-pā ngāi-yēng-jagin .	Ka-pā hāi dingā
A-nāi-nūmai-nāi khat .	Kū-sū-nū khat
A-nāi-nūmai-nāi khat-inko	Kū-sū-nū khat
A-nāi nūmai-nāi khat-yēng	Kū-sū-nū khat ding .
A-nāi-nūmai-nāi khat-yēng- jagin.	Kū-sū-nū khat dingā
A-nāi-nūmai-nāi anni .	Kū-sū-nū a-di
A-nāi-nūmai-nāi ngāi .	Kū-sū-nū hāi
A-nāi-nūmai-nāi ngāi-inko .	Kű-sű-nű hái
A-nāi-nūmai-nāi ngāi-yēng .	Kū-sū-nū hāi ding
A-nāi-nūmai-nai ngāi-yēng- jagin.	Kū-sū-nū hāi dingā
Pasal a-sā khat	A-pā a-tha-pā khat
Pasal a-sā khat-inko	A-pā a-tha-pā khat
Pasal a-sā khat-yēng .	A-pā a-tha-pā khat ding .
Pasal a-sā khat-yēng-jagin.	A-pā a-tha-pā khat dingā .
Pasal a-să anni	A-pā a-thā a-di
A-sāi pasal ngāi	A-pā a-tha-rūk
A-sāi pasal ngāi-inko .	A-pā a-tha-rūk
A-sāi pasal ngāi-yēng .	A-pā a-tha-rūk ding
A-sāi pasal ngāi-yēng-jagin	A-pā a-tha-rūk dingā .
A-sā nūmai khat	Nū-pāng a-thā khat
Sa-mak pasal nāi khat	Pa-sa-nāi a-thā-būi khat .
A-sāi nūmai ngāi	Nū-pāng hāi a-tha-rūk .
Sa-mak nūmai nāi khat .	Nū-pāng-nāi a-thā-būi khat
A-sā, a-sāi	A-tha
Anni negā a-sā	A-dí kārā a-thā

1	1
kis' చెట⊀ని వాడులు.	Köm (Manipole).
Ki-pā au-tau-tā	Ka-pā ka-tom
Ki-pā an-tam yiōng	Ka-pā ka-tam-nhēng
♥Ci-pā aa-tam yiōngā .	Ku-pa ka-tam-nhëng-a
Ki-cha-nū khat	Ka-sā-nū in-khāt
Ki-cha-nā khat-tā	Ka-sā-nū in-khat
Ki-cha-nū khat yieng	Ka-sā-nū in-khat-nhēng .
Ki-cha-nu khat yienga .	Ka-sā-nū in-khat-nhēng-ā .
Ki-shu-na ki-ni	Ka-sā-nā inhi
Ki-cha-gā au-tam	Ka-sā-nā ka-tum
Ki-cha-nā an-tam-tis.	Ka-sā-nū ka-tam
Ki-cha-rū an-tam yiëng .	Ka-sā-nū ka-tam-nhēng .
Ki-cha-nű an-tam yiëngā .	Ka-sā-nū ka-tam-nhēng-a .
Pasal-pā a-sā khat	A-ku-thā pasē in-khat .
Pasal-pā a-sā khat-tā .	A-ka-thā pasē in-khat .
Pasal-pā a-sā khat yieng .	A-ka-thā pasē in-khat-nhēng
Pasal-pā a-sā khat yiengā .	A-ka-thā pasē in-khat- nhēng-ā.
Pasal-pā a-sā ki-ni	A-ka-thā pasē inhi
Pasal-pā a-sā an-tam .	A-ka-thā pasē ka-tam .
Pasal-pā a-sā an-tam-tā .	A-ka-thā pasē ka-tam .
Pasal-pā a-sā an-tam yiēng	A-ka-thā pasē ka-tam-nhēng
Pasal-pā a-sā an-tam yiengi	A-ka-thā pasē ka-tam- nhēng-ā.
Nămai a-să khat	A-ka-thā nāmhai in-khat .
Sä-mak näi-tēdē khat .	Tha-mak pasë nai-pang-pa in-khat.
Nūmai a-sū an-tam	A-ka-thā nūmhai ka-tam .
Sü-mak nümai-tēdē khat	Tha-mak nümhai näi-pang- nü in-khat.
А-яй	A-ka-thä.
A-mā ē kin-ko a-mā sā-dēt	Inhi-ā ka-thak
S	

Pürüm (Massipur).	Auth (Haiper).	Hiroi-Lawging (Manipur).	English.
Ma-pā a-tam	. Ma-pā hing .	. A-pā ka-nēm-kat-ki .	107. Of fathers.
Ma-pā a-tam ningā .	. Ma-pā hing kūng .	A-pā ka-nēm-hin-thā	108. To fathers.
Ma-pā a-tam ningā .	. Ma-pā hing küng-gi .	A-pā ka-nēm-hin-ki	109. From fathers.
Ma-sa-näŭ-nű a-khä .	Sē-nū chara khē .	A-chā-nū khat	110. A daughter.
Ma-sa-nāŭ-nū a-khā.	Sē-nū charā khē	A-chā-nū khat-ki	111. Of a daughter.
Ma-sa-nāū-nū a-khā ningā	Sē-nū charā khē kūng	A-chā-nū khat hin-thū .	112. To a daughter.
Ma-sa-nāŭ-nū a-khā ningā	Sē-nū charā khē kūņg-gi .	A-chā-nū khat hin-ki	113. From a daughter.
Ma-sa-nāŭ-nū a-ni	Sē-nü charā anhi	A-chā-nū ki-nī	114. Two daughters.
Ma-sa-nāŭ-nū a-tam .	Sē-nū charā hing	A-chā-nū ka-nēm-kat .	115. Daughters.
Ma-sa-nāū-nū a-tam	Sē-nū charā hing	A-chā-nū ka-nēm-kat-ki .	116. Of daughters.
Ma-sa-nāū-nū a-tam ningā	Sē-nū charā hing küng .	A-chā-nū ka-nēm-kat-hin- thā.	117. To daughters.
Ma-sa-nāū-nū a-tam ningā.	Sē-nū charā hing kung-gi .	A-chā-nū ka-nēm-kat-hin-ki	118. From daughters.
A-pā arrhā á-khā .	Ithā sēn-pā khē	Pasēl-pā ka-thā khat .	119. A good man.
A-pā arrhā a-khā	Ithā sēn-pā khē	Pasēl-pā ka-thā khat-ki .	120. Of a good man.
A-pā arrhā a-khā ningā .	Ithă sên-pâ khê küng .	Pasēl-pā ka-thā khat-hin-thā	121. To a good man.
A-pā arrhā a-khā ningā .	Ithā sēn-pā khē kung-gi .	Pasēl-pā ka-thā khat-hin-ki	122. From a good man.
A-pā arrhā a-ni	Ithā sēn-pā anhi	Pasēl-pā ka-thā kinī	123. Two good men.
A-pā arrhā a-tam	Ithā sēn-pā hing	Pasēl-pā ka-thā-rēt	124. Good men.
A-pā arrhā a-tam	Ithā sēn-pā hing	Pasēl-pā ka-thā-rēt-ki .	125. Of good men.
A-pā arrhā a-tam ningā .	Ithā sēn-pā hing küng.	Pasēl-pā ka-thā-rēt hin-thā	126. To good men.
A-pā arrhā a-tam ningā .	Itha sen-pa hing kung-gi .	Pasēl-pā ka-thā-rēt hin-ki .	127. From good men.
Namai arrhā a-khā 🏸	Itha sē-nú khê	Si-nū ka-thā khat	128. A good woman.
A-pā-tē ha-no a-khā	Tha-mi sën-pä charā khē	Pasēl na-chā ka-thā-ka-mā khat.	-
Namai arrhā a-tam	Luhā sē-nū hing,	Si-nū ka-thā-rēt	130. Good women.
Namai-tē ha-no a-khā .	Tha-mi sē-au charā khē .	Si-nū na-chā ka-thā-ka-mā khat.	
Arrhä	Ithā · · ·	Ka-thā	132. Good.
A-mo-nā arrhā-tik-ti	Ama-nhi chākē amā-hi thakā	Khat ka-thā-sēt	133. Better.

English.		Rängkhöl (Cachar).	Hallām (Sylhet).	Langrong (Hill Tippersh).
134. Best .	•	Ārenging āshā (ā-sā-tāk)	Āssā uol	
135. High .	•	Āshēi	Ān-sāng	An-sang
136. Higher .	•	Ditto with genitive case	Āmā nekin ān-sāng	
137. Highest .	•	Ārenging āshēi	Ān-sāng uol, or ān-reng-in nek-ā ān-sāng.	, <sub>.</sub>
138. A horse .	•		Sā-kor ā-chal khāt	Sā-kor chal
139. A mare .	•	Hindoslani words used,	Sā-kor ā-nū-pāng khāt (or sā-kor-pūi).	Sā-kor-pūi
140. Horses .	•	plural -hai.	Sā-kor ā-chal-ngāi	Sā-kor-chal-hēi
141. Mares .	•	ا.	Sā-kor ā-nū-pāng-ngāi .	Sā-kor-pūi-hēi
142. A bull .	•	Shërhā-jāl (shërhāt-ā-jāl)	. Serāt ā-chal khāt	Se-rāt chal
143. A cow .	•	Shërhā-nữ (shërhāt â-nữ păng).	Serāt ā-nū-pāng (or pūi) khāt.	Se-rāt pūi
144. Bulls .	•.	. Shërhä-jal-hai	. Serāt ā-chal-ngāi	Se-rāt chal-hēi
145. Cows .	•	. Shërhä-nü-hai	. Serāt ā-nū-pāng-ngāi .	Se-rāt pūi-hēi
146. A dog .	÷	· Ūi. · · ·	. Ûi ā-chal khāt	Wāi chal
147. A bitch .	.•	. Vi-nū	. Ŭi ā-nū-pāng (or pūi) khāt	Wāi pāi
148. Dogs .	•	. Ūi-hai	. Ŭi ā-chal ngāi	Wūi chal-hēi
149. Bitches .	•	- Üi-nü-hai	. Ūi ā-nū-pāng ngāi	Wāi pāi-hēi
150. A he goat .	•	Gēl-jāl	. Kel ä-chal khāt	Kel chal
151. A female goat	•	. Gēl-nā·	. Kēl ā-nū-pāng (or pūi) khāt	Kel pāi
152. Goats .	•	• Gēl-hai	Kēl-ngūi	Kel hēi
153. ▲ male deer	٠	. All deer have different names. Sambhur = shāj (sā-jāk); barking dee	iı	Sā-jūk chal
154. A female deer	•	=shākhi (sā-kī); if mai is required, -jāl is made t suffix; if female has to l	le A-jāk ā-nū-pāng (or pāi) he khāt.	Sā-jūk pāi
155, Deer .	•	expressed, -uti is the suffi	z. Ā-jūk	Sā-jāk hēi
156. I am .	•	Gē(mā) ā-ōm, gō-ōm gēnī ōm.	Kei kā om, or kā om <sup>1</sup> .	Kai-mā om, or kai om
157. Thou art .	•	Nang-mā nē-ōin .	. Nang nā om, or nā om .	Nang-mā om, or nāy om .
158. He is	•	Ā-mā ā-ōm	. Ā-mā ā om, or ā om .	Āni om, or ā om
159. We are .	•	. Ge-mā-hai gin-hōm .	. Kei-ni kān-ā-om	Kai-mā-ni om, or kāin-om
160. You are . ~	•	. Nangni nin-hōm, nin-ōm	Nang-ni nana om	Nang-mā-ni om, or nāin om

Aimol (Manipur).		Chiru (Manipur).
Andrēngā kāra asā .	-	Wānūi nig-a a-thā
A-sanga	-	Arrshāng
Anni nëga a-sanga .	-	A-di kārā arrshāng .
Andreng-å kära a-sanga	-	Wānūi nigā arrshāng .
Sēkor achal khat	-	Sakorr chā khat
Sēkor apūi khat	-	Sakorr a-nū-pang khat .
Sēkor achal tam .	-	Sakorr chā a-tām-pūi .
Sēkor apūi tam .	-	Sakorr a-nū-pāng a-tām-pūi
Sērāt achal khat	-	Shi chā khat
Sērāt apūi khat .	-	Shi a-nr pang khat
Sērāt achal tam .	-	Shi chā a-tām-pūi
Sërāt apīti tam .	-	Shi a-nū-pāng a-tām-pūi .
Ŭi schal khat .	-	Ŭi chā khat
Ui apūi khat .	-	Üi a-nü-päng khat
Ui chal tam	-	Ui chă a-tām-pūi
Ūi apūi tam	-	Ŭi a-nū-pāng a-tām-pāi .
Kēl chal khat .	-	Kē chā khat
Kël apui khat	-	Kë a-nü-pang khat
Kël chal tam	-	Kē ā-rop
Sangāi chal khat .	-	Sangāi chā khat
Sangāi apūi khat .	-	Sangai a-nū-pāng khat .
Sangāi	-	Sangāi
Kai-ka-ni	-	Kai a-ni-läi
Nang na-ni	- 3	Nang a-ni-lāi
Amā a-ni	- 1	A-mā a-ni-lāi
Kai-ni ka-ni	- 3	Tai-kā a-ni-lāi
Nang-ni na-ni	- 2	Nang-ni nang-ni-lii
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A-tam kārā a-sā-ko a-mā a-sā A-sāng A-mā ē kin-ko a-mā ṣāng-dēt  \{ A-tam kārā a-sūng-ko a-mā a-sāng. Sakor chal khat Sakor a-pi khat Sakor a-pi khat Sakor chal an-tam Sakor a-pi an-tam Sērāt chal l-hat Sērāt a-pi khat Sērāt chal an-tam Sērāt chal khat Sērāt chā inkhat
A-mā ē kin-ko a-mā ṣāng-dēt tankā ānsāng .  A-tam kārā a-sāng-ko a-mā a-sāng.  Sakorr chal khat
A-ka-tam-ā ānsāng .  Sakor chal khat
A-tam kārā a-sāng-ko a-mā A-ka-tam-ā ānsāng . Sakor chal khat . Sakor chē inkhat . Sakor chē inkhat . Sakor apūi inkhat . Sakor chāl an-tam . Sakor chē ka-tam . Sakor pāi ka-tam . Sakor pāi ka-tam . Sērāt chal l-hat . Sērhāt chē inkhat . Sērāt a-pi khat . Sērhāt chē ka-tam . Sērāt chal an-tam . Sērhāt chē ka-tam . Sērāt a-pi an-tam . Sērhāt apūi ka-tam . Sērāt a-pi an-tam . Sērhāt apūi ka-tam . Ūi tang khat . Ūi chē inkhat . Ūi pūi inkhat . Ūi pūi inkhat . Ūi pūi ka-tam . Ūi pūi ka-tam . Ūi pūi ka-tam . Ūi pūi ka-tam . Kēl chal khat Kē chē inkhat Kē chē inkhat Kēl an-tam
Sakor a-pi khat
Sakorr chal an-tam
Sakor a-pi an-tam
Sērāt chal l-hat
Sērāt a-pi khat
Sērāt chal an-tam Sērhāt chē ka-tam
Sērāt a-pi an-tam Sērhāt apūi ka-tam .  Ūi tang khat
Üi tang khat Üi chë inkhat .   Üi pi khat   Üi tang an-tam   Üi pi an-tam <td< td=""></td<>
Üi pi khat<
Üi tang an-tam . Üi chē ka-tum   Üi pi an-tam . Üi pūi ka-tam   Kēl chal khat . Kē chē inkhat   Kēl pi khat . Kē apūi inkhat   Kēl an-tam . Kō ka-tam   Sangūi chal khat . Sangūi chē inkhat
Üi pi an-tam .   Kēl chal khat .   Kēl pi khat .   Kēl an-tam .   Kē ka-tam .   Sangāi chal khat .   Sangāi chē inkhat .
Kēl chal khat Kē chē inkhat Kē apūi inkhat Kē apūi inkhat
Kēl pi khat Kē aptī inkhat Kē ka-tam
Kël an-tam Kë ka-tam Sangāi chē inkhat
Sangāi chal khat Sangāi chē inkhat .
· ·
Sangāi a-pi khat Sangāi apūi inkhat .
Sangāi Sangāi
Kai ki-la-chang Kai ka-chang
Nang ni-la-chang Nang ka-chang
A-mā a-la-chang Amā ka-chang
Kai-ui kin-la-chang Kaini ka-chang
Nang-ni nin-la-chang . Nang-ni ka-chang-chai .

Pürüm (Mauipur).	Anāl (Manipur).	Hitő:-Lamgüng (Manipur).	English.
A-tam kārā mo-nā arrhū-tik- ti.	Hūyā pāng kālhi thakā .	Ma-mā ka-thā-sēt	134. Best.
Sāng-ē	Sāng-gā	Ka-sāng	135. High.
A-ni kārā nā-pāi sāng-tik .	Ama-nhi châkē amā-hi sāng-gā.	Khat ka-säng-sēt	136. Higher.
A-tam kārā mo-nā sāng- tik-ti.	Hūyā pāng kālhi sāng-gā .	Ma-mā ka-sāng-sēt	137. Highest.
Sakorr a-pā a-khā	Sakol patal khē	Sakol pā khat	138. A horse.
Sakorr namai a-khā	Sakol a-nū khē	Sakol nū khat	139. A mare.
Sakorr a-pā a-tam	Sakol patal hing	Sakol pā ka-nēm-kat	140. Horses.
Sakorr namai a-tam	Sakol a-nū hing	Sakol nū ka-nēm-kat .	141. Mares.
Sil chal-pā a-khā	Shal patal khē	Sil pā khat	142. A bull.
Sil a-mai a-khā	Shal a-nū khē	Sil nū khat	143. A cow.
Sil chal-pā a-tam	Shal patal hing	Sil pā ka-nēm-kat	144. Bulls.
Sil a-mai a-tam	Shal a-nti hing	Sil nū ka-nēm-kat	145. Cows.
Ŭi tang-pā a-khā	Wi patal khē	Üi pā khat	146. A dog.
Ūi bi-nū a-khā	Wi nữ khê	Üi nū khat	147. A bitch.
Üi tang-pā a-tam	Wi patal hing	Ūi pā ka-nēm-kat	148. Dogs.
Ŭi bi-nū a-tam	Wint hing	Ūi nū ka-nēm-kat	149. Bitches.
Kēl chal-pā a-khā	Kēl patal khē	Kēl pā khat	150. A he goat.
Kēl pi-nū a-khā	Kēl nā khē	Kēl nū khat	151. A female goat.
Kēl chal-pā a-tam	Kēl nhim-kā	Kēl pā ka-nēm-kat	152. Gosts.
Sangāi chal-pā a-khā .	Chaksha patal khē	Sangāi pā khat	153. A male deer.
Sangāi pi-nū a-khā	Chaksha nu khē	Sangāi nū khat	154. A female deer.
Sangāi	Chaksha	Sangāi	155. Deer.
Kai chang	Ni thiŭ-ga-ni	Nai ka-thok-nū	156. I am.
Nang chang	Nang thiū-ga-ti	Nang ka-thok-ni	157. Thou art.
Mo-na chang	Amā thiū-kā	Ma-mā ka-thok-nā	158. He is.
Ka-ni chang	Ni-hing thiū-ga-ni	Nain ka-thok-nū	159. We are.
Nangai chang	Nang-hing thiū-ga-ti .	Nangan-ju ka-thok-ngan .	160. You are.

English.	Bêngkhōl (Cechar).	Hallâm (Sylhet).	Langrong (Hill Tipperah).	
161. They are	Âmā-hài à-ōm	Ān-ni ānā om	Ān-mā-ni om, or ān-in-om .	
162. I was	Gē-ām-tā	Kei kā ni		
163. Thou wast	Nang nē-ōm-tā	Wang nā ni		
164. He was	Āmā ā-ōm-tā	Ā-mā ā-ni	<b></b>	
165. We were	Gēni-hai gē-ōm-tā	Kei-ni kānā ni	••••	
166. You were	Nangni nin-ōm-tā	Naug-ni nānā ni	***	
167. They were	Āmā-hai ā-ōm-tā	Ān-niānā ni	*****	
165. Be	Om	Om-ro	Om-nā	
169. To be	Omrang	Om-rang, or om-na	Om-nā-ding	
170. Being	Ā-ōm-ma	Om-å	Om-mā	
171. Having been	Öm-tā	От-а	L	
172. I may be	Gē ōm-tē-rāng	Kei kā om-thei	Kai om-thēi	
173. I shall be	Gēmā ōm-rāng	Kei om kā-ti	Kai om-ding	
174. I should be	Gē-ōm-tē	Kei kā om-rāng-in ā om .		
175. Beat	Jēm-rō	Jem-ro or hem-ro	<u>Th</u> ūk-nā	
176. To beat	Jēm-rāng	Jem-rāng (or jem-nā-rāng)	Thūk-nā-ding	
177. Beating	Jēm-mā	Jem- <b>ā</b>	Thūk-ā	
178. Having beaten	Ā-jēm-tā	Jem-ā	*****	
179. I beat	Gē-jēm ,	Kei kā jem	Kai-mā <u>th</u> ūk	
180. Thou beatest	Nē-jēm	Nang nā jem	Nang-mā <u>th</u> ūk	
181. He beats	Ā-jēm	Ā-mā ā jem	Ā-ni <u>th</u> ūk	
	Gé-mā-hai gē-jēm	Kei-ni kān jem	Kai-mā-ni <u>th</u> ūk	
183. You beat .	Nang-mā-hai nē-jēm .	Nang-ni nān jem	Nang-mä-ni <u>th</u> ük	
184. They beat	Āmā-hai ā-jēm	Ān-ni ān jem	a-mā-ni <u>th</u> ūk	
185. I beat (Past Tense)		(Kei-mān kā jem-rang) .	Kai-mān kē hem-tā	
Tones).	Nang nē-jēm-tā	(Nang jem-rang)	Nang-man na hem-ta .	
187. He beat (Past Tense) .	Āmā ā-jēm-tā	(Ā-niān jem-rang)	Ā-ni ān hem-tā .	

Aimol (Manipur).	Chiru (Manipur).		
An-mā-ni an-chang .	•	A-mā-ni a-ni-lāi	•
Kai ka-chang-yoi .	•	Kai kā-ni	-
Nang na-chang-yoi .	•	Nang nang-ni	-
Amā a-chang-yoi .	•	Amā-ni	•
Kai-ni ka-chang-yoi .	•	Kai-ni kā-ni	•
Nang-ni na-chang-yoi	•	Nang-ni nang-ni .	•
An-mā-ni an-chang-yoi	-	A-mā-ni a-ni-lāyā .	•
An-ni-yoi	•	Ni (Imperative form ni-rū).	is
Chang-rang	-	A-tha na-ranga .	•
Ka-chang-ä	•	A-ni-na-wo-lā	•
Ka-chang-yoi-yā .	•	A-ni-dalā	•
Kai ka-chang ayot .	•	Kai kā-ni-yom a-yoi	-
Kai changin ka-ti .	•	Kai ui-rang-kan .	-
Kai changin ka-ti .	•	Ditto .	•
A-vē	-	A-jēm	-
A-vē-na-rang	•	A-jēm-na-rāng-ā .	•
A-vē-yā	•	A-jem-da-nā	
A-vē-yoi-yā	•	Ditto	•
Kai-in ka-vē	•	Kai-nā ka-jēm .	•
Nang-in na-vē	-	Nang-nā nang-jēm .	-
A-män a-vē	-	A-mā-nā a-jēm .	-
Kai-ni[n] kan-vē	-	Kai-ni-nā ka-jēm	•
Nang-nin nana-vē	-	Nang-ni-nā nang-jēm	-
A-mā-nin ana-vē	-	A-mā-ni-nā a-jēm	•
Kai ka-vē-yoi	-	Kai-nā ka-jēm-yoi	-
Nang na-vē-yoi	-	Nang-nā nang-jēm-yoi	•
A-mān a-vē-yoi .	•	A-mā-nā a-jem-yoi .	•

Kolrën (Manipur).		Kōm (Manipur).	
An-mā-ni an-la-chang	-	An-mā-ni ka-chang-hai	-
Kai ki-lai-chang-chang	z -	Kai kailē ka-chang-ē	-
Narg ni-lai-chang-cha	ang .	Nang kalai ka-chang-chè	-
Amā a-lai-chang-chan	g .	Amā alai ka-chang .	-
Kai-ni kin-lai-chang-	chang	Kai-ni lai-ka-chang-ŭng	-
Nang-ni nin-lai-chang-	chang	Nang-ni lai-ka-chang-chi	-
An-mā-ni an-lai-c chang.	hang-	An-mā-ni ala i-ka-chang-ai	
Chang	-	Ka-chang	-
Chang-sik-a-ni .	-	Chang-sikā	
Chang-lēyā	-	Ka-chang-ā	-
Ditto	-	Ka-chang-yo-a.	-
Kai kî-chang-chak	-	Kai ka-chang ka-thā	-
Kai changing kē-tā .	•	Kai ka-chang sēng .	
Kai changing kē-tā .	•	Ditto .	-
A-ni-wĕl		Wük	-
Ni-wēl-sik-a-ti.		Wūk-sikā	•
Wēl-ā	.   .	Ka-wük-ä	-
Wēl-ā		Ka-wūk-yo-ā	-
Kain ki-wēl .		Kain ka-wük	-
Nang-in ni-wēl.		Nang-in na-wük .	•
A-mān a-ni-wel		Amān a-wūk	•
Kai-nin kin-wēl		Kai-nin kan-wük .	
Nang-nin nina-wēl		Nang-nin nan-wük .	
An-mā-nin ana-wēl		Au-mā-nin an-wāk .	
Kain ki-wël-yai		Kain ka-wūk-yō	
Nang-in ni-wel-yai		Nang-in na-wūk-yō .	
A-mān a-wēl-yai		Amān a-wūk-yō .	
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Ma-nin chang   Amā-hing   kā   Ma-mān ka-thok-lam-dā   161. They	English.
Kai-in chang fūring         Ni thiūndā         Nai ka-thok-nū         162. I wm           Nang-in chang fūring         Nang bē thiūndēndā         Nang ka-thok-paktē         163. Thom           Mo-na chang fūring         A-mā hē thiūkā         Ma-māng ka-thok-dā         164. He wm           Ka-ni chang fūring         Ni-hing thiūndā         Nang ka-thok-nū         165. Wo wm           Nang-hing thiūndā         Nangin ka-thok-nā         166. You           Ma-nin chang fūring         A-mā-hing thiūndā         Ma-mān ka-thok-lam-dā         167. They           Chang         Ithiū-bā         Ka-thok         168. Be.           Chang-ang         Ithiū-bā         Korthok-rā         169. To b           Chang-ang-nong         Thungā-nū         Korthok-rā         170. Being           Chang-ang-nong         Thiū-nā         Korthok-riyaū-dā         171. Havi           Kai-ko ka-chang arhā         Ni thiūng-ga-ni         Nai ka-thūk-ma-rūwā         172. I ma           Kai-ko ka-chang arhā         Ni thiūng-ga-ni         Nai ka-thūk-ni-ka-di         173. I aha           Ditto         Ditto         174. I sho           Wēl         Ibon-bā         A-prai         175. Beat           A-wēl-ang         Ibon-bā         Pa-rai-dā         177. Beati	
Nang-in chang füring         Nang bē thiundendā         Nang ka-thok-paktē         163. Thor           Mo-na chang füring         A-mā hē thiūkā         Ma-māng ka-thok-dā         164. He v           Ka-ni chang fūring         Ni-hing thiūndā         Nain ka-thok-nū         165. We v           Nangai chang fūring         Nang-hing thiūndā         Nangin ka-thok-ngan-ti-nū         166. You           Ma-nin chang fūring         A-ma-hing thiūkā         Ma-mān ka-thok-lam-dā         167. They           Chang         Ithiū-bā         Ka-thok         168. Ba.           Chang-ang         Ithiū-narā         Korthok-rā         169. To b           Chang-ang-nong         Thiū-nū         Korthok-dā         170. Bein           Chang-ang-nong         Thiū-nū         Korthok-riyaā-dā         171. Havi           Kai-ko ka-chang arhā         Ni thiūng-ngam         Nai-kā ka-thūk-ma-rūwā         172. I ma           Kai-ko ka-chang arhā         Ni thiūng-ga-ni         Nai-kā ka-thūk-ma-rūwā         173. I sha           Ditto         Ditto         174. I sho           Wēl         Ditto         174. I sho           Wēl         Ibon-bā         A-prai         175. Beat           Ditto         Ka-būnā-dē         Pa-rai-riyaū-dā         178. Havi	
Mo-na chang füring .         A-mā hē thiūkā .         Ma-māng ka-thok-dā .         164. He v           Ka-ni chang fūring .         Ni-hing thiūndā .         Nain ka-thok-nū .         165. We v           Nangai chang fūring .         Nang-hing thiūndā .         Nangin ka-thok-ngan-ti-nū .         166. You           Ma-mān chang fūring .         A-mā-hing thiūkā .         Ma-mān ka-thok-lam-dā .         167. They           Chang .         Ithiū-bā .         Ka-thok .         168. Be.           Chang-ang .         Ithiū-narā .         Korthok-rā .         169. To b           Chang-ang-nong .         Thūngū-nū .         Korthok-dā .         170. Being           Chang-ang-nong .         Thiū-nū .         Korthok-riyaū-dā .         171. Havi           Kai-ko ka-chang arbā .         Ni ithiū pa-ngam .         Nai-kā ka-thūk-ni-ka-di .         172. I ma           Kai chang-ang .         Ni ithiūng-ga-ni .         Nai ka-thūk-ni-ka-di .         173. I sha           Ditto .         Ditto .         174. I sho           Wēl .         Ibon-bā .         A-prai .         175. Beat           A-wēl-ang .         Ibon-bā .         Ta-prai-narā .         176. To be           Wēl .         Ka-būnā-dē .         Pa-rai-riyaū-dā .         178. Havi           Kai-nā wēl-ā .         N	s.
Ka-ni chang fūring       Ni-hing thiūndā       Nain ka-thok-nū       165. We v         Nangai chang fūring       Nang-hing thiūndāndā       Nangin ka-thok-ngan-ti-nū       166. You         Ma-min chang fūring       A-mā-hing thiūkā       Ma-mān ka-thok-lam-dā       167. They         Chang       Ithiū-bā       Ka-thok       168. Be         Chang-ang       Ithiū-bā       Korthok-rā       169. To b         Chang-ang-nong       Thūngū-nū       Korthok-dā       170. Bein         Chang-ang-nong       Thiā-nū       Korthok-riyaū-dā       171. Havi         Kai-ko ka-chang arhā       Ni ithiū pa-ngam       Nai-kā ka-thūk-ma-rūwā       172. I ma         Kai chang-ang       Ni thiūng-ga-ni       Nai ka-thūk-ni-ka-di       173. I sha         Ditto       Ditto       174. I sho         Wēl       Ditto       175. Beat         A-wēl-ang       Ka-būnā-dē       Pa-rai-dā       177. Beati         Ditto       Ka-būnā-dē       Pa-rai-dā       178. Havi         Kai-nā wēl-ā       Ni ka-bon-wal       Nain ka-prai       180. Thou         Ma-nā wēl-ā       Ni-hing ka-bon-wal       Nain ka-prai       181. He b         Ka-nī-nā wēl-ā       Ni-hing ka-bon-mang       Nain ka-prai       182. We b	ı wast.
Nangai chang fūring         Nang-hing thiāndēndā         Nangin ka-thok-ngan-ti-nū         166. You           Ma-nin chang fūring         A-mā-hing thiākā         Ma-mān ka-thok-lam-dā         167. They           Chang         Ithiū-bā         Ka-thok         168. Be.           Chang-ang         Ithiū-narā         Korthok-rā         169. To b           Chang-ang-nong         Thūngū-nū         Korthok-dā         170. Being           Chang-ang-nong         Thiū-nū         Korthok-dā         171. Havi           Kai-ko ka-chang arhā         Ni ithiūng-ga-ni         Nai-kā ka-thūk-ma-rūwā         172. I ma           Kai chang-ang         Ni thiūng-ga-ni         Nai ka-thūk-ni-ka-di         173. I sha           Ditto         Ditto         174. I sho           Wēl         Ibon-bā         A-prai         175. Beat           A-wēl-ang         Ka-būnā-dē         Pa-rai-dā         176. To b           Wēl-a         Ka-būnā-dē         Pa-rai-dā         177. Beati           Ditto         Ka-būnā-dē         Pa-rai-riyaū-dā         178. Havi           Nang-nā wēl-ā         Ni ka-bon-wal         Nai ka-prai         180. Thou           Ka-nī-nā wēl-ā         A-mā a-bon-wal         Nain ka-prai         181. He b           Ka-nī-nū wēl-ā<	Tes.
Ma-nin chang füring       A-ma-hing thiūkū        Ma-mān ka-thok-lam-dā        167. They         Chang        Ithiū-bū        Ka-thok        168. Be.         Chang        Ithiū-narā        Korthok-rā        169. To b         Chang-ang        Thūngū-nū        Korthok-dā        170. Being         Chang-ang-nong        Thūngū-nū        Korthok-riyaū-dā        171. Havi         Kai-ko ka-chang arhā        Ni ithiū pa-ngam        Nai-kā ka-thūk-ma-rūwā        172. I ma         Kai-chang-ang        Ni ithiūng-ga-ni        Nai ka-thūk-ni-ka-di        173. I sha         Ditto        Ditto        Ditto        174. I sho         Wēl             175. Beat         A-wēl-ang <td>vere.</td>	vere.
Chang       Ithiū-bā       Ka-thok       168. Be.         Chang-ang       Ithiū-narā       Korthok-rā       169. To b         Chang-ang-nong       Thūngū-nū       Korthok-dā       170. Being         Chang-ang-nong       Thiū-nū       Korthok-riyaū-dā       171. Havi         Kai-ko ka-chang arhā       Ni ithiū pa-ngam       Nai-kā ka-thūk-ma-rūwā       172. I ma         Kai chang-ang       Ni thiūng-ga-ni       Nai ka-thūk-ni-ka-di       173. I sha         Ditto       Ditto       174. I sho         Wēl       Ibon-bā       A-prai       175. Beat         A-wēl-ang       Ibon-narā       Ta-prai-narā       176. To be         Wēl-a       Ka-būnā-dē       Pa-rai-dā       177. Beati         Ditto       Ka-būnā-dē       Pa-rai-riyaū-dā       178. Havi         Kai-nā wēl-ā       Nang a-bon-wal       Nang ka-prai       180. Thou         Mo-nā wēl-ā       Ni-hing ka-bon-wal       Nain ka-prai       181. He be         Ka-ni-nā wēl-ā       Ni-hing ka-bon-mang       Nain ka-prai       182. We be	were.
Chang-ang       . Ithiū-narā       . Korthok-rā       . 169. To b         Chang-ang-nong       . Thūngū-nū       . Korthok-dā       . 170. Being         Chang-ang-nong       . Thiū-nū       . Korthok-riyaū-dā       . 171. Havi         Kai-ko ka-chang arhā       . Ni ithiū pa-ngam       . Nai-kā ka-thūk-ma-rūwā       . 172. I ma         Kai chang-ang       . Ni thiūng-ga-ni       . Nai ka-thūk-mi-ka-di       . 173. I sha         Ditto       . Ditto       . 174. I sho         Wēl       . Ibon-bā       . A-prai       . 175. Beat         A-wēl-ang       . Ibon-narā       . Ta-prai-narā       . 176. To be         Wēl-a       . Ka-būnā-dē       . Pa-rai-dā       . 177. Beati         Ditto       . Ka-būnā-dē       . Pa-rai-riyaū-dā       . 178. Havi         Kai-nā wēl-ā       . Ni ka-bon-wal       . Nai ka-prai       . 179. I bea         Nang-nā wēl-ā       . Nang a-bon-wal       . Nang ka-prai       . 180. Thou         Mo-nā wēl-ā       . Ni-hing ka-bon-mang       . Nain ka-prai       . 181. He b         Ka-ni-nā wēl-ā       . Ni-hing ka-bon-mang       . Nain ka-prai       . 182. We b	were.
Chang-ang-nong       Thungu-nu       Korthok-dā       170. Being Chang-ang-nong         Chang-ang-nong       Thiungu-nu       Korthok-riyau-dā       171. Havi Kai-ko ka-chang arhā       Ni ithiung-gam       Nai-kā ka-thuk-ma-ruwā       172. I ma Nai ka-thuk-ni-ka-di       173. I sha Ditto       174. I sho Ditto       174. I sho Nai ka-thuk-ni-ka-di       175. Beat.         Wēl       Ibon-bā       A-prai       175. Beat.         A-wēl-ang       Ibon-narā       Ta-prai-narā       176. To beat.         Wēl-a       Ka-būnā-dē       Pa-rai-riyau-dā       177. Beat.         Ditto       Ka-būnā-dē       Pa-rai-riyau-dā       178. Havi         Kai-nā wēl-ā       Ni ka-bon-wal       Nai ka-prai       179. I beat.         Nang-nā wēl-ā       Nang a-bon-wal       Nang ka-prai       180. Thou         Mo-nā wel-ā       A-mā a-bon-wal       Ma-mā ka-prai       181. He beat.         Ka-ni-nā wēl-ā       Ni-hing ka-bon-mang       Nain ka-prai       182. We beat.	
Chang-ang-nong       . Thiū-nū	e.
Kai-ko ka-chang arhā       Ni ithiū pa-ngam       Nai-kā ka-thūk-ma-rūwā       172. I ma         Kai chang-ang       Ni thiūng-ga-ni       Nai ka-thūk-mi-ka-di       173. I sha         Ditto       Ditto       174. I sho         Wēl       Ibon-bā       A-prai       175. Beat.         A-wēl-ang       Ibon-narā       Ta-prai-narā       176. To be         Wēl-a       Ka-būnā-dē       Pa-rai-dā       177. Beati         Ditto       Ka-būnā-dē       Pa-rai-riyaū-dā       178. Havi         Kai-nā wēl-ā       Ni ka-bon-wal       Nai ka-prai       179. I bea         Nang-nā wēl-ā       Nang a-bon-wal       Nang ka-prai       180. Thou         Mo-nā wēl-ā       Ni-hing ka-bon-mang       Nain ka-prai       181. He be         Ka-ni-nā wēl-ā       Ni-hing ka-bon-mang       Nain ka-prai       182. We be	<b>g∙</b>
Kai chang-ang       . Ni thiūng-ga-ni       . Nai ka-thūk-ni-ka-di       173. I sha         Ditto       . Ditto       . 174. I sho         Wēl       . Ibon-bā       . A-prai       . 175. Beat.         A-wēl-ang       . Ibon-narā       . Ta-prai-narā       . 176. To be         Wēl-a       . Ka-būnā-dē       . Pa-rai-dā       . 177. Beati         Ditto       . Ka-būnā-dē       . Pa-rai-riyaū-dā       . 178. Havi         Kai-nā wēl-ā       . Ni ka-bon-wal       . Nai ka-prai       . 179. I bea         Nang-nā wēl-ā       . Nang a-bon-wal       . Nang ka-prai       . 180. Thou         Mo-nā wēl-ā       . A-mā a-bon-wal       . Ma-mā ka-prai       . 181. He b         Ka-ni-nū wēl-ā       . Ni-hing ka-bon-mang       . Nain ka-prai       . 182. We b	ng been.
Ditto       Ditto       174. I sho         Wēl       Ibon-bā       175. Beat         A-wēl-ang       Ibon-narā       Ta-prai       176. To be         Wēl-a       Ka-būnā-dē       Pa-rai-dā       177. Beati         Ditto       Ka-būnā-dē       Pa-rai-riyaū-dā       178. Havi         Kai-nā wēl-ā       Nī ka-bon-wal       Nai ka-prai       179. I bea         Nang-nā wēl-ā       Nang a-bon-wal       Nang ka-prai       180. Thou         Mo-nā wēl-ā       A-mā a-bon-wal       Ma-mā ka-prai       181. He be         Ka-ni-nā wēl-ā       Ni-hing ka-bon-mang       Nain ka-prai       182. We be	y be.
Wēl       Ibon-bā       A-prai       175. Beat.         A-wēl-ang       Ibon-narā       Ta-prai-narā       176. To beat.         Wēl-a       Ka-būnā-dē       Pa-rai-dā       177. Beati.         Ditto       Ka-būnā-dē       Pa-rai-riyaū-dā       178. Havi.         Kai-nā wēl-ā       Ni ka-bon-wal       Nai ka-prai       179. I beat.         Nang-nā wēl-ā       Nang a-bon-wal       Nang ka-prai       180. Thou.         Mo-nā wēl-ā       A-mā a-bon-wal       Ma-mā ka-prai       181. He beat.         Ka-ni-nā wēl-ā       Ni-hing ka-bon-mang       Nain ka-prai       182. We beat.	11 be.
A-wēl-ang       . Ibon-narā       . Ta-prai-narā       . 176. To be         Wēl-a       . Ka-būnā-dē       . Pa-rai-dā       . 177. Beati         Ditto       . Ka-būnā-dē       . Pa-rai-riyaū-dā       . 178. Havi         Kai-nā wēl-ā       . Ni ka-bon-wal       . Nai ka-prai       . 179. I bea         Nang-nā wēl-ā       . Nang a-bon-wal       . Nang ka-prai       . 180. Thou         Mo-nā wēl-ā       . A-mā a-bon-wal       . Ma-mā ka-prai       . 181. He bea         Ka-ni-nā wēl-ā       . Ni-hing ka-bon-mang       . Nain ka-prai       . 182. We bea	uld be.
Wēl-a       .       Ka-būnā-dē       .       .       Pa-rai-dā       .       .       177. Beati         Ditto       .       .       Ka-būnā-dē       .       .       Pa-rai-riyaū-dā       .       .       178. Havi         Kai-nā wēl-ā       .       <	b
Ditto       Ka-būnā-dē	eat.
Kai-nā wēl-ā       Ni ka-bon-wal       179. I bea         Nang-nā wēl-ā       Nang a-bon-wal       Nang ka-prai       180. Thou         Mo-nā wēl-ā       A-mā a-bon-wal       Ma-mā ka-prai       181. He bo         Ka-ni-nā wēl-ā       Ni-hing ka-bon-mang       Nain ka-prai       182. We bo	ng.
Nang-nā wēl-ā.       Nang a-bon-wal       .       Nang ka-prai       .       180. Thou         Mo-nā wēl-ā.       .       A-mā a-bon-wal       .       Ma-mā ka-prai       .       181. He bon-mang         Ka-ni-nā wēl-ā.       .       Ni-hing ka-bon-mang       .       Nain ka-prai       .       .       182. We bon-mang	ng beaten.
Mo-nā wēl-ā	t.
Ka-ni-nā wēl-ā	beatest.
	eats.
Nangai-nā wēl-ā Nang-hing ka-bon-dēndā . Nangin ka-prai 183. You	eat.
i i i	beat.
Ma-ni-nā wēl-ā A-mā-hing kiyē-nu Ma-mān ka-prai 184. They	beat.
Kai-nā wēl-piyang Ni kē-wal Naiyā ka-prai-yā 185. I bea	t (Past Tense).
Nang-nā wēl-piya <u>ū-</u> chē . Nang ki-ta-nū	beatest (Past
	eat (Past Tense).

English.	Rāngkhōl (Cachar).	Hallam (Sylhet).	Langrong (Hill Tipperah).
188. We beat (Past Tense)	Gē-mā-hai gē-jēm-tā	(Kei-nin käin jem-rang) .	Kai-mā-ni kāin hem-tā .
189. You beat (Past Tense)	Nang-mā-hai nē-jēm-tā .	(Nāng-ni nāin jem-rang) .	Nang-mā-ni nāin hem-tā .
190. They beat (Past Tense	Āmā-hai ā-jēm-tā	(Ān-mā-ni ān-in jem-rang)	Ān-mā-ni ān-in hem-tā .
191. I am beating .	Gē-jēm	Kei kā lā-jem-bāng	••••
192. I was beating .	Gē-jēm-tā	Kei kā lā-jem-bāng	
193. I had beaten .	Gē-jēm-tā	Kei kā jem	•••••
194. I may beat .	. Gē-jēm-tē	Kei kā jem-thei	Kai-mā <u>th</u> ūk-thēi
195. I shall beat .	Gē-jēm-rāng	Kei jem kā-tī	Kai-mā <u>th</u> ūk-ding
196. Thou wilt beat .	. Nang nē-jēm-rāng	(Nang jem-ding)	Nang-man hem-ding.
197. He will beat .	. Āmā ā-jēm-rāng	(Āni ān jem-ding)	Ā-ni ān hem-ding
198. We shall beat .	Gē-mā-hai gē-jēm-rāng .	(Kei-nin kāin jem-ding) .	Kai-mā-ni kāin hem-ding .
199. You will beat .	Nang-mā-hai nē-jēm-rāng .	(Nang-ni nāin jem-ding) ·.	Nang-mā-ni nāin hem-ding
200. They will beat .	. Āmā-hai ā-jēm-rāng .	(Ān-mā-ni ān-in jem-ding)	Ān-mā-ni ān-in hem-ding .
201. I should beat .	• Gē-jēm-tē-rāng	Kei kā jem-rāng-in ā om .	•••••
202. I am beaten .	. Gē-jēm-fāk	Kei ān ā jem	
203. I was beaten .	. Gē-jēm fāk-tā	Kei an a jem	•••···
204. I shall be beaten	. Gē-jēm fāk-rāng	Kei nā-jem-ā-tī	<b>001419</b>
205. I go	· Gē-phē (gē-fē)	Kei kā sē	Kai-mā kāl
206. Thou goest .	. Nang nē-phē	Nang nā sē	Nang-mā kāl
207. He goes	Āmā ā-phē	Ā-māāsē	Ā-ni kāl
208. We go	Gē-mā-hai gē-phē	(Kei-nin kāin kāl)	Kai-mā-ni kāl .
209. You go	Nang-mā-hai nē-phē	(Nang-ni sē)	Nang-mā-ni kāl
210. They go	. Āmā-hai ā-phē	(Än-mā-ni ān sē)	Ān-mā-niān kāl . ,
211. I went	. Gē-phē-tā	Kei kā sē-jei	por
212. Thou wentest .	. Nang në-phë-tā	Nang nā sō-jei	••••
213. He went	. Āmā ā-phē-tā	Āmā ā sē-jei	*****
214. We went	. Gē-mā-hai gē-phē-tā	(Kai-mā-ni kāin sē-tā)	Kai-mā-ni kāin kāl-tā
. KC. G.—320	1		

Aimol (Manipur).		Chiru (Manipur).
Kai-ni kan-vē-yoi .		Kai-ni-nā ka-jēm-yoi .
Nang-ni nana-vē-yoi		Nang-ni-nā nang-jēm-yoi .
A-mā-nin ana-vēyoi .	-	A-mā-ni-nā a-jēm-yoi • .
Kai ka-la-vē	-	Kai-nā ka-jēm-lāi
Kai ka-lai-vē	-	Disto
Kai ka-vē-yoi	-	Kai-nā kā-jēm-yoi
Kai ka-vē a-yot .	•	Kai-nā ka-jēm-om-a-tha
Kai-in vēng-ka-ti	-	Kai-nā a-jēm-rang
Nang-in vēng-na-ti	•	Neng-nā a-jēm-rang-naug-ni
A-mā-in vēng-a-ti	-	A-mā-nā a-jēm-rang .
Kai-ni vēng-kan-ti	-	Kai-ni-nā a-jēm-rang .
Nang-ni na-vē-rang .	•	Nang-ni-nā a-jēm-rang- nang-ni.
A-mā-nin ana-vē-rang	-	A-mā-ni-nā a-jēm-rasu .
Kai-in vēng-ka-ti	•	Kai-nā a-jēm-rang
Kai-in na-vē	-	Kai khālo na-jēm
Kai-in na-vē-yoi	•	Kai khālo na-jēm-yoi .
Kai na-vē-rang a-ni-yoi	•	Kai khālo a-jēm-rāng-ni-ti
Kai ka-la-chē	•	Kai kā-shē
Nang na-la-chē .	•	Nang nang-shē
A-mā a-la-chē	•	A-mā a-shē
Kai-ni kan-la-chē .	-	Kai-ni kā-shē
Nang-ni na-la-chë	•	Nang-ni nang-shē
A-mā-ni a-la-chē	•	A-mā-ni a-shē
Kai ka-chē-yoi •	•	Kai kā-shē-yoi
Nang na-chē-yoi .	•	Nang nang-shē-yoi
A-mā a-chē-yoi .	•	A-mā a-shē-yoi
Kai-ni kan-chē-yoi	•	Kai-ni kä-shë-yoi • •
1		KC. G321

Kolrën (Manipur).	Kôm (Manipur).	
Kai-nin kin-wēl-yai .	. Kai-nin kan-wük-yö	-
Nang-nin nin-wēl-yai .	Nang-nin nan-wük-yö	-
An-mā-nin ana-wēl-yai	. An-män-in an-wük-yö	-
Kain ki-wēl-ā a-om .	. Kain ka-lai-wük-hi .	-
Kain ki-wēl-ā a-om-yai	. Kain ka-lai-wūk-shai-y	75 -
Kain ki-wēl-yai .	. Kain ka-wūk-yō .	-
Kain ni-wēl asā .	Kain ka-wük ka-thā	-
Kain ni-wēling kētē	- Kain ka-wūk-si	-
Nangin ni-wēling kētē	Nang-in na-wūk-si .	-
A-mān a-wēling kētē	- Amān a-wük-si .	
Kai-nin ni-wēling kētē	Kai-nin kan-wūk-si	-
Nang-nin ni-weling këtë	. Nang-nin nau-wūk-si	
An-mā-nin ana-wēling kē	tē An-mā-nin an-wūk-si	-
Kain ni-wēling kētē	• Kain ka-wük-si .	. <b>.</b> .
Kaiyē ni-wēl	. Kai ani-wūk-ēng .	· -
Kāiyē ni-wēl-yai .	Kai ani-wük-yo-ëng	_
Kaiyē ni-wēl-hi-ka-ti	Kai anta-wük-si-öng	
Kai ki-chai	. Kai ka-sē	
Nang ni-chai	. Nang ka-së	• -
A-mā a-chai	. Ama ka-sē .	
Kai-ni kin-chai .	. Kai-ni ka-sē-ūug	•. •
Nang-ni nin-chai .	. Nang-ni ka-sē-chai	
An-mā-ni an-chai .	. An-mā-ni ka-sēng-ha	ā
Kai ki-chai-yai .	. Kai ka-sē-yō-ēng	
Nang ni-chai-yai	. Nang ka-sē-yō-chē	
A-mā a-chai-yai .	. Amā ka-sē-yōng-hai	•
Kai-ni kin-chai-yai	. Kai-ni ka-sē-yō	~ •

Pürüm (Manipur).	Anâl (Manipur).	Hirði-Lamgång (Manipur).	English.
Ka-ni-nā wēl-piyaū .	. Ni-hing kē-ti	Nain ka-prai-in	188. We beat (Past Tense).
Nangai-nā wēl-piyaū	. Nang-hing ki-ta-nū	Nangin a-prai-no	189. You beat (Past Tense)
Ma-ni-nā wēl-piyaū .	. Amā-hing ki-yē-nū .	Ma-mān a-prai-no	190. They beat (Past Tense)
Kai-nā wēl-song-ing	. Ni kē	Nai ka-prai	191. I am beating.
Kai-nā wēl-am-song	. Ni kē-wal	Nai ka-prai-ka-am	192. I was beating.
Kai-nā wēl-sū-piyaū	. Ditto	Nai ka-prai-riyaū	193. I had beaten.
Kai ka-wēl kolhā	. Ni kē-warr	Nai ka-ro-prai ma-ro-wā .	194. I may beat.
Kai-nā wēl-ang	Ni a-būm-fo-ni	Nai pa-rai-ningdi	195. I shall beat.
Nang-nā wēl-ang	Nang a-būm-fo-ni	Nang a-prai-nā	196. Thou wilt beat.
Mo-nā wēl-ang .	Amā-hē a-būm-fo-ni	Ma-māng ka-prai-rā	197. He will beat.
Ka-ni-nā wēl-ang	Ni-hing a-būm-fo-ni	Nai-ni a-prai-ni-kān .	198. We shall beat.
Nangai-nā wēl-ang .	. Nang-hing a-būm-fo-ni .	Nangin a-prai-nan	199. You will beat.
Ma-ni-nā wēl-ang	A-mā-hing a-būm-fo-ni	Ma-mā-ni ka-prai-rang .	200. They will beat.
Kai-nā wēl-ang .	Ni a-būm-fo-ni	Nai parai-ningdi	201. I should beat,
Kai-ta wêlê	Ni-do mi-ki-nū	Nai-ma prai-dā	202. I am beaten.
Kai-ta wēl fūrpiyo .	Ni-do mi-ki-nū	Nai-ma prai-riyaü-dā .	203. I was beaten.
Kāi-ta wēl-angiti .	Ni-do mi-kaikothima .	Nai-mā ka-prai-rā	204. I shall be beaten.
Kai theng-song-ing .	Ni chi-ka-ni	Nai ka-wa-aping	205. I go.
Nang theng-song-se .	Nang ti-chē-wā	Nang ka-wa-ngampati .	206. Thou goest.
Mo theng-song .	A-mā wā-chā	Ma-mā ka-wāngā	207. He goes.
Ka-ni theng-song .	Ni-hing chi-ka-ni	Nain ka-wāng-ampin .	208. We go.
Nangai theng-song .	Nang-hing ti-chē-wā .	Nangin ka-wang-ampin .	209. You go.
Ma-ni thêng-song .	A-mā-hing chi-chē	Ma-mān ka-wāng-nomā .	210. They go.
Kai theng-senge .	. Ní chē-nū	Nai ka-wā-aping	211. I went.
Nang theng-songe .	Nang chē-ta-nū	Nang ka-wā-aping	212. Thou wentest.
Mon theng-song	A-mā chi-yē-nū	Ma-mā ka-wā	213. He went.
Ka-ni thëng-song	Ni-hing chi-hè-nti	Nain ka-wā-ampin	214. We went.

English.	Rångkhöl (Cachar).	Hallām (Sylhet).	Langrong (Hill Tipperah).
215. You went	Nang-mā-hai nē-phē-tā .	(Nang-ni nāin sē-tā).	Nang-mā-ni nāin kāl-tā .
216. They went	Āmā-hai ā-phē-tā	(Ān-mā-ni ān-in sē-tā) .	Ān-mā-ni ān kāl-tā
217. Go	Phē-rō	Sē-ro	Kāl-nā
218. Going	Phē-mā	Sē-ā	Kalla
219. Gone	Ā-phē-tā	Sē-ā	*****
220. What is your name? .	Nang-mā irming ī-mō? .	Nā rā-ming ī-mâ?	Nai ming I-mâ?
221. How old is this horse?	Gōrai ( <i>or</i> sā-kor) gūm ījā-mō ?	Hi-mā sā-kor ūmar ītūk- mā? (or Mā sā-kor hi	Mā sā-kor ā-kūm ī-jā-kā mâ?
222. How far is it from here to Kashmir?	Āmā ātākāhī (Kāsmīr) alhā ijāmō ?	kūm ī-tū-kā mâ?) Hi-mā tākā-tā Kāsmir ī-tūk- mâ ālāk ?•	Hijā omin Kasmir karten- kā mâ?
223. How many sons are there in your father's house?	Nē-pā în-shūngā bashal ijāmō (or ijā-ni) P	Nā pā in-ā îtūk-mā nāi ā- om ? (or Nang-mā pā nāi ī-jātā mā ā nēi ?)	Nang-mā pā nāi ī-jā-kā mâ ?
224. I have walked a long way to-day.	Abun (or ā-vūn) gēma alhā āhōng ā-ni-tā.	Ā-vien ā-lāk-pā lām kāl kā choy.	Kai-mā banālam allā sir
225. The son of my uncle is married to his sister.	Ga-pā-tēr bāshāl āmā ga-ūnū moiān biik-tā.'	Kā pangāk nāi ā sar-nū-lē kānin lāk (orsar-nū rū- thār lak).	Kai-mā pang-ak nāi ā-nī far-nū ā nēi.
226. In the house is the sad- dle of the white horse.	În inshung-hā gāhāba görai- nu zīn ā-ōm.	Ā-mā in-ā sā-kor ngoi sā- phal ā om.	
227. Put the saddle upon his back.	Ā-mā ā-rōl-hā zīn ni-pē-rō .	Hi-mā sā-phal ā rūong chung-ā ma-khap-râ.	•••••
228. I have beaten his son with many stripes.	Gēmā āmā bāshal attām gē-jēm-tā.	Kein tok-molle āmā ā-nāi āchālāk-in kā jem (or kei- mā mā nāi retta-in jem-ok).	Kai-mā mā nāi rettā-in bai- tam kā <u>th</u> ūk.
229. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill,	rhā-hai naidī āphāk.	Ā-mā sip chūng-ā se-rāt ā hol.	Å-ni tlang chūng-ā se-rāt hâl.
230. He is sitting on a horse under that tree.	görai-güng ātoi.	Ā-mā sa-mā thing-kūng noy-ā sā-kor khāt chūng- ā ān-sung-ā ā om.	Ā-ni mā kūg nai-yā sā-kor chūng-ā tūng.
231. His brother is taller than his sister.	āllīn ā-ōm.	Ā-mā ā pā-rul-pā ā sar-nū nekin ā sei (or an-chang).	Ā-ni tā-pā ā far-nū nēkin ān-sang.
232. The price of that is two rupees and a half.	Āmāhi ā-mān dār-ni ādūli.	Sa-mā ā mān dār ni aduli (or dār ni lai duli).	Mā-hi ā-mān cheng-ni lai dhūli.
233. My father lives in that small house.	Gē-pā āmā injin in-shūnghā ā-ōm.	Kā-pā sa-mā in-tē-ā ā om (or omi).	Kai-mā pā sâ in-tai-ā om- <u>th</u> in.
234. Give this rupee to him	Āmā-hā āmā-hi dārkat ni- pē-rō.	Hi-mā sum-dār āmā-hā pē- ro.	Mā cheng ā-ni-ding pai-râ .
235. Take those rupees from him.	Ā-mā-tak shūm lā-rō	Sa-mā sum-hā āmā-kom-ā- tā lā-ro.	Sâ cheng hā ā-ni neng-ā lā-râ.
236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes.	Āmū-hā ā-shā-tēn jēm-rō ō mināng-lē kid-rō.	Āmū-rāng achālāk-in jem- ro ruile khit-ro.	Āni hem-chem-rā chūn rū- in khit-rā.
237. Draw water from the well.	(No word for well) Thūū-tak dūi lā-rō.	Āmā nidrā-tā (or tāi-khār- ā) tāi lok-ro (or choi- rā).	Mā tūi-khūr-ā tūi choy-râ
238. Walk before me	Gē-mā mutthuna phō-rō .	Kā māton-ā kāl-choi-ro (or so-rā).	Kai-mū masā masā sir-rā
239. Whose boy comes behind you?	Nangmā iununghā tū-mō nai-tē ū-hōng?	Nũ nhk-ũ tũ nũi mâ ũ hong?	Nang-mā uũng-ā tũ nãi mâ hong ?
240. From whom did you buy that?	Tümö tütü nahöng-mö amüha ni-rjöng-tü ?	Tū kom-ū-tū mā sa-mā nei-rū-chok?	Mā-hi tū neng-ā mâ châk?
241. From a shopkceper of the village.	Kuo mā bēpāri tak gi-rjöng- tā.	Hi-mā khūā mudi khāt kom-ā-tā.	Mā khūā dhūkānder khāt- kā neng-ā.
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Aimol (Manipur).	Chiru (Manipur).
Nang-ni na-chē-yoi	Nang-ni nang-shē-yoi .
A-mā-ni a-chē-yoi	A-mā-ni a-shē-yoi
Ka-chē (Imperative mood, cha-ro).	A-shō
Ka-chē-yā	A-shē a-lā
Ka-chē-yoi-yā	A-shē-lāy-ā
Na-ming imo n-ti?	Nang ri-ming i-mo-ti? .
Sēkor-hi kūm iyat a-ni-yoi- mo?	Sakorr hilā kūm i-yāt-mo- ni?
Hiwātēnā Kashmir tūng- rang hikok i-dor-mo-la?	Hi-nā-hi Kashmir shokrāng- khūlā i-chān-mo a-la-tā?
Na-pā innā na-nāi pasal iyat-mo an-om?	Nang-pā in-ā a-sha-pā i- yāt-mo om ?
Yenni kai tam ka-chē-yoi .	Kai a-won-tü ä-la-tak kā- shē-yoi.
Ka-pāngā a-nai-in a-char-nū a-loi-yoi.	Ka-pā nāi-pang a-sha-pā-nā a-sarr-nū-khālo a-loi.
Sēkor angoi-pā yāfal-ko in-sūngā a-om-yoi.	Sakorr angoi safārr in-ā om
A-ting-ā yāfal beng-ta-ro .	Arrnamā safārr ma-kop-pē-
Amā nāi-pasal-ko kai-in molā a-tam ka-vē-yoi.	Kai-nā a-mā a-sha-pā khālo ra-mo-lē tām-pūi ka-jēm- yoi.
A-lon-a a-mān sērāt sachik a-la-pē.	A-mā-nā ching lonā shirāt sobū ka-pēk-lāi.
A-mān thing kūng thoyā sekor a-chong-ā om.	A-mā-nā thing nūiyā sakorr āshūk a-om.
A-char-nū nēgā a-nāi-pang pā a-sāng-yoi.	Amā a-sarr-nū khatū a-nāi- pang-pā-nā a-shang-dēt.
A-mā man-ko lūfāi ann makhāi mankē.	i Makhā man-katū dangkā a-di-lē-hērr.
Ka-pā-ko in sin-ā a-om-yoi	. Ka-pā khāto in pili-tē-yā o- om.
A-mā yēng lūfāi hi pe-ro	. Dangkā hilā a-mā a-ding pē-rū.
A-mā yēng lūfāi a-tan hong-loi-ro.	young-loi-ru.
A-mā-ha-ko vē-jag-in-l rūi-yā khit-ro.	ā A-mā khātā a-nak-tak jēm- danā rūirū-lē khop-ro.
Kūhā tūi va-choi-ro	Kūhā tūi khā lūk-tanā wāk-choi-rū.
Ka-māi-kūng-ā va-lon-ro	. Ka-műi-küngā shē-rü
Na-nāg-ā pasal nāi tū-m an-haūng-mo?	o Nang nūwā tū-nāi-mo-ni pa-sa-nāi ā-hong.
Nāng-in a-mā-ha-ko t yōng-ā nai-chok-mo?	nē-ra-chok-mo-ni?
Amā khū-wā tūkāl- kai-chāok.	ā A-mā khowā dūkān khat o-omā ki-ra-chaūk.

Kolrën (Manipur).	Köm (Manipur).
Nang-ni nin-chai-yai	. Nang-ni ka-sē-yō-chōi
An-mā-ni an-chai-yai	. An-mā-ni ka-sē-yōn-hai
Ka-chē	. Ka-sē
Ki-wā-chai .	Ka-sē-ā
Ki-wā-chain-ko .	. Ка-sē-yō-ā
Ni-ming ang-mo-nti?	. Na ra-mhing hai-mō?
Hiwā sakorr hiko kūn i-yāt-mo ni-yai?	Sakor hi kūm iyāyō-mō ? .
Hiwā-chai-nān Kashmi sūwok-nā ang-tū-mo-a-ni	Hininā Kāshmir kasēhi P haituk-mo ka-lhā ?
Ni-pā in-ā a-cha-pā ang yāt-mo an-om ?	Na-pā inā na-sā-pā haiyā- mō kō-ōm ?
Kai wēn-ko a-lā ki-chē-yai	. Tū-ning kai ka-tam ka-sē-
Ki-pa mi-tūm a-cha-pān a- mā a-charr-nū a-nai.	Ka-pā nāi-pang-pān a-sā- pān amā a-sar-nū a-lōi-yō.
Sakorr a-bang säfal-ko in süng-ä a-om.	Sakor ka-bang safar in-a
A-ting-ā sāfal tēt-rū	Athūmā safar hāp-ro
Kaın a-mā a-chā-pā molā a-tam ki-wēl-yai.	wāng ka-tam-ā ka-wük-yō.
A-mān ching būng-ā siēl a-khāl.	3 3
A-mān thing kūng noyā sakorr a-chūwong-ā a-om.	Amā thing haiyā sakor anchungā ko-om.
A-mā a-charr-nū nēko a- nāi-pā a-sāng.	Amā asar-nū chū anāi-pā ka-nēgā ka-sāi.
A-mā man-ko dangkā chai- ni lē abērr.	Amā man-chū dangkā chēng-nhi makhāi.
In a-të-lëk të kipä aom .	In ka-sin-tëk-a ka-pa kō-ōm
	Dangkā hi amā nhēng pē-rō
A-mā yiengā dangkā hawā wa-lai-ro.	Dangkā khā amā nhēngā lo-ro.
A-mā rinakā wēl-rū rūj-lē khop-ro.	Amākhā kanhagā wū-inā rhūi-wāng khit-rō.
Khūr-ā tūi yong-thāl-ro .	Kūhā khanā tūi thē-rō .
Ki-mā-tiēng chē-ro	Ka-mhā sē-rō
Ni-nūk-tieng khoi chā-mo a-wā ?	Na-ka-nhūng akhan tū sā- pā-mō kō-hōng ?
Nang-ko hiwā khoi-yēngā ni-ne-rik-chok-mo-ni?	Nang kha-ë të nhëngë
Ning khāo hawā tūkāl-ā ka-nē-ri-chok-a-ni.	Khū hininā tūkāl hinā kā-rchōk.
K-C G noe	

Pürüm (Manipur).	Anāl (Manipur).	Hirōi-Lamgang (Manipur).	English.
Nangai thëng-song	Nang-hing wā-cha-ti	Nangin ka-wā-am-pati .	215. You went:
Ma-ni theng-song	Amā-hing wā-cha	Ma-mān ka-wā-lom	216. They went.
Thēng	Cha-chā	Ka-wā	217. Go.
Thēngā	Cha-nū	Wā-lom-dā	218. Going.
Thēng-sū-so	Cha-nū	Wā-nŭ	219. Gone.
Na-ming alo tiyāmē?	A-mhi-bā kū-ti?	Nang a-ming atā?	220. What is your name?
Sakorr hi kūm iyā a-yo-mo ?	Sakol haibē kūm yāthūchā?	Sakol ā-kūm ta-yām sūkā ?	221. How old is this horse?
Ināmakhaiyā Kāshmir fā iyā-lāmo?	Hūki hibē Kashmir hibē achaisokā?	Hawā-thūngti Kashmir tafāk ta-yā ka-lā?	222. How far is it from here to Kashmir?
Na-pā in-ā na-sa-nāū iyā amamo?	Apā inthūng acharā ayāng- kā?	Apā in-thā a-nā-chā ta-yā ka-am?	223. How many sons are there in your father's
Kai wonri lämä thöng-siyä	Nibē ni ahanthi-mā chalē .	Si-ni nai-yā ka-nēm-kat chē-nū.	house?  224. I have walked a long way to-day.
Ka-pātē sa-nāūpā-nā ma- sarr-nū lai-saū.	Kapā charā amā chalamā a-mā-wām-thū-thi.	Ka-pā komo a-nā-chā ma- charr laū-dā.	225. The son of my uncle is married to his sister.
Sakorr angaŭ-pā sāpal in sūngā.	Sakol arābāhilē sāpal amā inthūng ankā.	Sakol ka-ngaŭ-ki sāpalā in-thūng-hā ka-am.	226. In the house is the saddle of the white horse.
A-chūng-ā sāpal sisi	Wa-lēn-hā sāpal athiyā .	Ma-pāng lēng-thā sāpal apķal.	227. Put the saddle upon his back.
Kai-nā ma-sa-nāŭ-pā lichai- yā lāmā wēl-piyaū.	Ni amā charā amhon kha- chi-mā ka-bon-thi.	Nai-yā ma-mā chā-pā sachai kadoka-mā parai-nū.	228. I have beaten his son with many stripes.
Mo-na chingā sil sēla am .	Amā būng-tā shal wa-pūn- hān-mang.	Hali lon-thā ma-māng sil sajik ma-pēgā.	229. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill
Mo-na thing-thūyā, sakorr chonga am.	Amā thing-būl hēni sakol lēng tiūngkā.	Ma-mäng ding-bül-ing sakol tong-dä ka-am.	230. He is sitting on a horse under that tree.
Ma-nāū-nū tajū ma-nāū-pā- nā sāng-tik:	Amā chal hēlē wa-nē amān- chēlē sāngkā.	Ma-charr-nữ mà-não isảngã	231. His brother is taller than his sister.
Māna man-jū ļūpā ani makhāi.	Amā min hēlē ropā anhi makhē.	Āo man lūpā ki-ni makhāi	232. The price of that is two rupees and a half.
Ka-pā-na in tē-yā am .	In chārā thūng ka-pā ankā	Ka-pā in ka-dil-son thung ka-am.	233. My father lives in that small house.
Ma-ningā nā lūpā pē	Ropā hē amā kūng-hā pēwā	Lūpā hawā ma-mā-hin-thā api.	234. Give this rupee to him.
Ma-ningā lūpā hā lā	Amā kūng-ki ropā hē a-li- wā.	Ma-mā-hin-ki awā lūpā a- laū.	235. Take those rupees from him.
Mo-tā nā wēl-ā rūi ahū .	Amā-hō kanā būnā shūwā tūngā.	Ma-mā ka-dūngē a-prai-lā rūiyā aktū.	236. Beat him well and hind him with ropes.
Kūhā tūi achoi ahang .	Kūhā thũng-gi dũ hi-chū- wā.	Kūhā thūng-ki di hāi-sok .	237. Draw water from the well.
Ka-mā thēng	Ka-dū-hā wāng-wā	Kū-dū-thā wā	238. Walk before me.
Na-nū-ting-ā a-tū sa-nāū-tē hong-tamē ?	Athal akŭ charā wāngkā ?	A-dil-thā kū nāo ka-ra-wā ?	239. Whose boy comes be- hind you?
Nang nā-hā a-tū ningā lai- yachē?	Nangbē akū-kūng amā-to an-kati ?	Nangā awā ko-hin-kē a-rēn ?	240. From whom did you buy that?
Nā-hū tūkāl mi a-khā ningā	Amā khū-ki tūkāl khē kūng-ki rē-nū.	Hão thũng-ki tũkān thũng- ki mi khat hin-ki.	241. From se shopkeepers of the village.

### SOUTHERN CHIN SUB-GROUP.

To the south of the Chin Hills there are several tribes which are related to the Northern Chins. Two of them are relatively well known, viz., the Khyangs or Shös and the Khamis. Both will be dealt with separately below. Many southern tribes, such as Anu, Kun, Pallaing, and Sak or That, are mentioned in the Census reports and gazetteers, but we do not know anything about their dialects. Major R. M. Rainey has drawn up the following notes regarding the most important tribes bordering on the Yaw country in the Pakökku district:—

'The Welaung Chins inhabit the villages at the headwaters of the Myittha river. They are bounded on the north and west by Baungshè Chins, on the south by Chinboks, and on the east by Taungthas of the villages round Wethet, which is distant four days' journey.

. The Chinboks live in the hills from the Maw river down to the Sawchaung. They are bounded on the north by Welaung and Baungshè Chins, on the east by the Burmans, on the west by the Arakan Yomas, and on the south by the Yindu Chins.

'The Yindus inhabit the valleys of the Salinchaung and the northern end of the Mön valley, bounded on the south by the Chinbons; otherwise the same as Chinboks.

'The Chinbons inhabit the southern end of the Monchaung, and stretch across the Arakan Yomas into the valley of the Pichaung. They are bounded on the south by the Chinbons on the Minbu frontier, on the east by the Burmans, and on the west by the Arakanese. . . .

'The Welaung Chins are stated to be of Baungshè origin. The Chinboks claim a similar origin. The Yindus state that their origin is similar to that of the Taungthas, an industrious race who inhabit the Yaw and Myittha valleys in Burman territory, and who claim to have come from Popa hill. The Chinbons, further south, point out a rock which they state is the body of a Min or official who was killed in a quarrel with his brother when they were emigrating from Popa, and was turned into a stone. The brother returned to Popa. The Chinbons claim Burman origin. Further than this the Chins appear to have no history. In appearance they resemble Burmans though some have better features. . . .

'There appears to have been no attempt at government further than an incomplete village system. Each village has a thugyi. The title is hereditary and does not necessarily indicate a man of influence . . .

'There is no religion further than propitiating and consulting nats or spirits . .

'The system of cultivation carried on by the different sections or tribes on the South Yaw frontier is similar, and the crops produced vary but slightly. It is all taungya cultivation . . .

'The houses resemble those of Burmans, except that they are stronger and better built . . . During the cultivating season the villages are abandoned and temporary huts are built in the fields as well as sheds for storing grain . . .

'Men, women, and even small children are never without their pipes and tobacco, and smoke constantly.

. . . The most remarkable custom of these people is their habit of getting drunk on every possible occasion.

. . . 'All women have their faces tattooed. The process is commenced when they are small children and gradually completed, the operation extending over several years.'

We have very little information with regard to the dialects spoken by these tribes. There are said to be two dialects spoken by the tribes on the headwaters of the Myittha.

The Chinböks speak three distinct dialects, the northern from the Mon to the north bank of the Chē; the central, spoken on the south bank of Chē and the Kyauksitchaung; the southern, spoken by the Kadin and Sawchaung Chins.

The Yindus and the Chinbons are also said to speak separate languages. The Chinbon dialect is identical with that spoken in the Laungshē township.

The Chinmes, who inhabit the sources of the eastern Mon, are said to be a sort of connecting link between the Baungshès and the Chinboks.

Messrs. Scott and Hardiman have printed vocabularies of Chinbok, Taungtha, and the dialect spoken in Yawdwin, i.e., probably, the northern Chinbok dialect. The pronominal prefixes, which are so characteristic of the Kuki-Chin languages, seem to

Daingnet, which has formerly been considered as a Chin dialect, turns out to be a corrupt form of Bengali.

occur in all these dialects. Chinbok and Taungtha seem to be akin to Shö. Chinbok che, I, kye-mi, we; and Taungtha kye, I, kye-bu, we, seem to correspond to kyē, I, kyē-me, we, in Shö. Yawdwin is also apparently a southern dialect. Here we find the prefixed negative m in ambean, bad, from a-bean, good. But the materials at my disposal are not sufficient for entering upon these questions. The vocabularies apparently contain many misprints, and I am therefore obliged to leave the question about these dialects open.

The first numerals in these dialects, compared with those occurring in Lai and Shö, are:—

			Lai.	Taungtha.	Yawdwin.	Chinbok.	Shö.
One	•	•	pö-kat	pa-khat	tu-mat	tu-mat	mat.
Two	•	•	<b>pö-</b> nī	pa-nīp	nhi	nhi	nhi.
Three	•	•	pö-thüm	pa-thum	tum	thum	thūm.
Four	•		pö-lī	pa-li	pyi	phi	lhi.
Five	•		pö-nga	pa-nga	mha	mha	ngha.
Six	•		pö-rük	p <b>a-r</b> u	kroak	khrūk	sop.
Seven			pö-sērī	pa-sari	khri	serr	shēy.
Eight			pö-rye <u>th</u>	pa-rīp	khret	shīt	shet.
Nine	•		pö-kwa	pa-kwa	ko	ko	ko.
Ten	•	•	рö-та	pa-rhā	rhar	shr <b>ā</b>	ha.
Twenty	•	•	p <b>ö-k</b> ül	rai-nīp	ma-kôn	um-ku	kūl.
Hundred	i .	•	za-kat	tayā	pra	phya	phys.

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## SHÖ OR KHYANG.

The Khyengs or Khyangs inhabit the country on both sides of the Arakan Yomas. According to Major Fryer their geographical limits are comprised within the 18th and 21st degrees of North latitude. In the Chittagong Hill Tracts Captain Lewin found them chiefly on the spurs of the great hill range which separates that district from Arakan. There are now about 100 Khyangs in the Boh Mong Chief's circle. The territory inhabited by the Khyangs in the north is rugged and inaccessible. In the south they dwell on the fertile banks of streams, and can procure the necessaries of life without difficulty; moreover, though still retaining their individuality, they are gradually adopting the more civilized manners and the mode of agriculture of the Arakanese. Mr. Houghton remarks:—

'The Southern or tame Chins, as they are sometimes called to distinguish them from the Northern or wild Chins, inhabit both sides of the Arakan-Yomas and are found in the Akyab, Kyaukpyu, and Sandoway districts on the west, and the Minbu. Thayetmyo, Prome, and Henzada districts on the east. They are very closely related to the wild Chins, Mros, Kamis, etc., for though the languages of these are mutually unintelligible, a comparison of their vocabularies shows the difference to be merely one of dialect, and philologically of no great importance. The tame Chins are in fact merely a tribe which formerly inhabited the present Iushai or wild Chin country, and which has been forced south by a vis a tergo at probably no very distant epoch. This movement to the southward is still going on, though slowly, for tribes and clans must be very hard-pushed indeed before they definitely abandon their ancestral hills and valleys. There is a tendency amongst the southernmost Chins to merge into the Burman race, and this is also the case amongst those who have gone farthest from the Yoma to the eastward. One reason however which prevents the Chins from assimilating rapidly with the Burmans is their practice of keeping pigs, which are used both as an article of diet and for offering to the nâts and the "Khun". These pigs are destructive of any kind of garden in or near the village, and hence to avoid disputes Chin houses must always be by themselves and not intermixed with Burman ones.'

The people call themselves A-shö (Houghton), Hiou or Shou (Fryer), Shyū or Shoa (Hodgson). They are called Chins by the Burmans, and Khyang or Khyeng is the Arakanese pronunciation of this same word. According to a tradition they have come down from the sources of the river Chindwin. Others claim to be of the same lineage as the Burmese and Arakanese, descendants of Burmese refugees, or remnants of an army losts on its way westwards. The number of Chins in Burma at the census of 1891 was 95,499.

While the most northerly Shös have not been much influenced by the civilisation of the surrounding tribes, the more southerly gradually assimilate themselves to the customs and manners of their neighbours.

A translation of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and a list of words has been received from the Chittagong Hills Tracts. It is however almost impossible to form a fair idea of the dialect from these texts. I have therefore also used the grammars by Messrs. Fryer and Houghton, mentioned under authorities below, for the compilation of the grammatical sketch. The language described in both is practically identical. With regard to the dialect spoken in the Chittagong Hill Tracts our oldest information about it is the vocabulary furnished by Captain Lewin. This is, however, with two or three alterations, reprinted from the vocabulary prepared by Captain Phayre in Arakan, and published by Hodgson. Another vocabulary published by Captain Phayre in 1841 differs only slightly. Captain Phayre remarks that there is some difference between the

dialects spoken by the Northern and the Southern tribes. The words published by Hodgson were taken from a man belonging to the Northern tribes.

In the grammatical sketch I have throughout compared the statements given by Messrs. Fryer and Houghton with the forms occurring in the specimen and list of words received from Chittagong. It will be seen that there are many instances of disagreement, not more however than might be expected between dialects spoken in such relatively distant countries.

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  B. A. N. Parrott, I.S.C., and the dialect is different from that described in the preceding work.

Pronunciation.—The spelling is very inconsistent, both in the specimen and in the list of words received from Chittagong, and it is impossible to form an exact idea of the pronunciation. The short forms of the personal pronouns which are generally prefixed to

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verbs are a good instance of the great variety in the spelling. Thus we find ka-mai, I am; kā-chet-ai, I will go; ko-bun-āl, I found (him) again; ku-du-āhe, I am about to die. It is probable that these pronominal forms are pronounced without a marked stress when prefixed to other words. Their vowel is then probably much reduced and indistinct, its colour being influenced by the vowel of the following, accented, syllable. But there is also in other places great inconsistency. The word kēi, I, is for instance also written keāi, kāi, khe, and ke. The pronominal stem ai, he, that, has also the forms oi, or o, and E is interchangeable with ei and i; thus,  $sh\bar{e}l$  and sheil, cow;  $cheng\bar{a}$  and  $sing\bar{a}$ , to. The word for 'son' occurs as chāu, chau, cho, and cha. In the same way we find pāu and po, father. The sound intended is probably o or  $\tilde{a}$ , the a in English 'all.' The verb chon, to run, is also written chan. Mr. Houghton gives san for Southern Chin, and the same sound is probably also meant in the specimen. In the Chittagong list a is apparently very often written for a. The personal pronoun of the second person is given as nung in the list, and as nang in the specimen. Houghton gives naung and Fryer naun. In the same way we find a-khal and ai-kūl, they, etc. Houghton states that the Southern Chins do not pronounce their vowels distinctly, and this fact accounts for many of the inconsistencies mentioned above. We must, however, also remember that the preparation of the specimens has been attended by extraordinary difficulties.

An h is sometimes added after a vowel at the end of a word. Thus especially after the postposition  $\bar{a}$ , in, to, which is then occasionally written ah. Houghton mentions this h which he calls *spiritus lenis*, and says that the breath must be expelled after pronouncing the vowel, the breathing being of various strength. He transliterates it h. Thus,  $\bar{a}$  thom-lo-w $\bar{a}$ , at a distance; but oi pre- $\bar{a}h$ , that country in;  $\bar{a}$ -ng $\bar{a}$ -ah, the servants to.

The w in  $\bar{a}$ -thom-to-w- $\bar{a}$  is euphonic. In the same way a euphonic y is inserted before  $\bar{a}$ , when an i precedes; thus,  $t\bar{a}i$ -y- $\bar{a}$ , in the fields.

The consonants j and ch seem to be interchangeable; thus ai-na-lache, eating; thoong-ba- $l\bar{a}jeh$ , arising. J, however, occurs very rarely. Ch is also interchanged with s or sh; thus,  $cheng\bar{a}$  and singa, to, with;  $\bar{a}$ -thon- $\bar{a}i$ -cho and  $\bar{a}$ -thon- $\bar{a}i$ -sho, to be. In other words ch corresponds to s in the dialects described by Houghton and Fryer; thus, in cho, son; chet, go; chon, run, etc. In all such cases the real sound seems to be s.

An r occurs in some words after k, kh, and p. Instead of khra, moon, Lewin has klhau, and l is probably the real sound. Houghton remarks that the Southern Chins are unable to pronounce r, and substitute l for it in Burmese words. In the parable, r occurs in the following words: khrong, man, Houghton and Fryer khlaung;  $mutho\ krak$ , a harlot; krau, to fall, Houghton klauk, Fryer  $kl\ddot{u}$ , Burmese  $kr\ddot{a}$ ; kro, time, Houghton khyin, Fryer  $k\ddot{h}oa$ ; kro and keong, to tend, Houghton and Fryer klong, Burmese kyaung; krok, lost, Houghton  $kl\ddot{u}k$ ;  $prang\ddot{a}$ , out, Houghton and Fryer plaung, Burmese  $prang\ddot{a}$ ; pre, country, Houghton  $pl\ddot{e}$ , Burmese  $pran\ddot{a}$ . It is probable that r in such words is due to the Burmese orthography, and that l is spoken.

The writing of aspirated letters is very inconsistent. Thus we find khrong and krong, man; mhai and mai, to be; nha and na, thou; ni and nhi, two, etc. The aspirated s has been transliterated 's. The consonants gn are often written instead of ng; thus,  $\bar{a}gn\bar{a}$  for  $\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{a}$ , servant. Compare Houghton ngho, Burmese  $ng\bar{a}$ , to hire. In  $singn\bar{a}$ , to, ngn is written instead of ng. K seems to be softened before a vowel in ai-peg-ah, to-eat-gavenot.

We have no information regarding tones in the Chittagong dialect. But it is prohable that it has the same three tones which Houghton and Fryer mention. Houghton describes them as the short acute, the heavy grave, and the rising tones; Fryer as rising tone, falling tone, and emphatic stress.

These descriptions are not sufficient to form a clear idea of the tones. Houghton further remarks that the Chins speak habitually in a lower tone than the Burmans.

Articles.—There are no articles. The numeral  $m\bar{a}th$  or  $ng\bar{a}t$ , one, is used as an indefinite article, and definiteness is expressed by means of demonstrative pronouns or relative clauses.

**Nouns.**—The prefix  $\bar{a}$  often occurs before nouns; thus,  $\bar{a}$ -po, father;  $\bar{a}$ -cho, son. It is in many cases perhaps originally the pronominal prefix of the third person. We find, however,  $\bar{a}$ -po used in the sense of 'my father.' In  $\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{a}$ , a servant, the  $\bar{a}$  seems to be a formative prefix. Compare Burmese  $ng\bar{a}$ , to hire. Fryer mentions another prefix ka or kh, in ka-nhi, sun; khlo, moon. The list of words gives kha-ni, sun; and khra, moon.

Gender.—Gender is only apparent in the case of animate beings. The gender of human beings is generally distinguished by the use of different words. Thus,  $p\hat{a}$ , father;  $n\bar{u}$ , mother:  $t\bar{a}$ , (elder) brother;  $b\bar{e}$ , sister: pata, i.e., pa-tho, man; mata or mutho, woman: pata  $ch\hat{a}$ , man young, son; mata  $ch\hat{a}$ , daughter. Instead of mata Houghton gives natho, and Fryer nhato, and the form beginning with ma is perhaps due to the influence of the Burmese ma. Another word for 'male' is pa-chung or pu-chung. It is used as a suffix. Thus,  $\bar{a}-chau$  pu-chung, child male, son. The corresponding female suffix is  $n\bar{u}$ ; thus,  $ch\bar{u}nn\bar{u}$ , i.e.,  $ch\hat{a}$   $n\bar{u}$ , daughter.

Number.—According to Houghton and Fryer there are three numbers, singular, dual, and plural. Both give hoi as the suffix of the dual, but add that the numeral 'two' is generally used instead, except in a few compounds such as ta-nau-hoi, elder brother younger brother both, the elder and younger brothers. The suffix hoi is sometimes added to the verb; thus, on-u-hoi, were. It seems to be identical with the plural suffix hai in Rāngkhōl and connected dialects. The list of words always uses ni, two. The only instance in the parable is ā-chau pu-chung ni, two sons. Houghton gives the following suffixes of the plural, hyā, dū, and di, Fryer hio, loi, tak, and nii. In the parable there is no instance of a plural suffix, the number always appearing from the context. The list of words contains two plural suffixes, nūng, apparently corresponding to Fryer's nū, to abound, and ti, corresponding to Houghton's di and Lushēi tē. Thus, pā nūng, fathers; chā-nū ti, daughters.

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Case.—The Nominative and the Accusative do not take any suffix. Houghton mentions a suffix ni in the accusative, but he gives no instances. It seems to occur in  $kai\cdot ni$ , me;  $aingh\bar{a}t\cdot ni$ , him, etc. The suffix of the subject of transitive verbs is  $l\bar{a}$ . Thus,  $\bar{a}\cdot ng\bar{a}\cdot l\bar{a}$  hopek, the servant said. In the second specimen we find na. Houghton gives  $y\bar{u}$ ,  $t\bar{u}$ , and  $n\bar{u}$  as the suffixes of the instrumental. The Genitive is expressed by putting the governed before the governing noun; thus,  $p\bar{a}$   $im\cdot\bar{a}$ , (my) father's house in. The list of words gives a genitive suffix kheo; thus, khrong pai kheo, of a good man. In  $n\bar{a}ng\cdot ko$ , thine, the same suffix is written ko. Compare Fryer's  $k\bar{u}$  and  $g\bar{u}$ . Houghton calls this suffix an ablative suffix, and compares Burmese ka. The suffix tha is apparently used in a similar sense; thus,  $ch\bar{a}\cdot n\bar{u}$  ngat tha, from a daughter. Compare Comparative, below. The nominative is often used as a Vocative; thus,  $pa\bar{u}$ , O father. Sometimes o is prefixed; thus,  $o\cdot p\bar{u}u$ , O father. Houghton mentions o as a suffix; thus,  $bhoi\cdot yo$ , O chief. Other relations are expressed by means of postpositions. Such are  $\bar{a}$ , in, to;  $cheng\bar{a}$ , to, from;  $n\bar{a}ng$  and ong, with; tha or thak, from, etc.

Adjectives.—Adjectives usually follow the noun they qualify, and suffixes and postpositions are then added to them and not to the qualified noun. Houghton states that adjectives, with the suffixes  $k\ddot{u}$  or  $g\ddot{u}$ , and di, that is to say as relative participles, often precede the noun they qualify. In the parable the superlative always is placed before the noun, and, according to Houghton, every adjective which is modified by an adverb is put in the same position.

The particle of Comparison is tha, from; thus,  $\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{e}$  tha ka kling, his sister than I tall, I am taller than his sister;  $\bar{a}$ -ling tha  $\bar{a}$ -ling, tall than tall, taller. Mr. Fryer gives lon as the particle of comparison. Words meaning 'much,' 'very,' 'great,' may be added to the adjective; thus a-tha ka pai- $t\bar{e}i$ , him-than I good-very, I am better than he. Fryer gives san, great; thus san aphoi, great good, better. He and Houghton state that  $h\bar{e}k$  may be added to denote the highest degree. Thus, a-bhoi- $h\bar{e}k$ , the best. No-lek, younger, seems to mean 'young-small.' Compare No. 233 in the list of words.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. The form for 'one' is given as  $m\bar{a}t$  in the Chittagong list, and as  $m\bar{a}th$  in the specimen. Compare Fryer's pum-hot, one, and Chinbōk tu-mat, one. In No. 101 and following we find another form ngat, which corresponds to the forms  $h\bar{a}$  and hot given by Houghton and Fryer. Buchanan gives moo. These forms of the first numeral are apparently connected with the forms in the Mōn-Khmēr group of languages. Compare Mōn mwoi, Anam  $m\bar{o}t$ , one. The form mi for 'two' which occurs in No. 117 is perhaps a mishearing for ni or nhi. In Buchanan's list, however, we find palmee, two. The numerals sok, six, and shet, eight, correspond to the Burmese forms khyauk and  $sh\bar{o}t$ , or  $sh\bar{e}$ , as against the other Chin languages.  $K\bar{u}l$ , twenty, in the Chittagong list is identical with the forms in some Central Chin dialects. Lewin gives  $k\bar{u}r$ , and Houghton's go and Fryer's goi are clearly identical. The numerals are adjectives and follow the noun they qualify.

There are several generic prefixes. The Chittagong list occasionally uses the prefix  $p\bar{a}i$  before numerals applying to human beings; thus,  $p\hat{a}$   $p\bar{a}i$ -ni, two fathers. Fryer has pun, which before h and m becomes pum; thus, pumhot, one. Houghton gives  $p\bar{u}n$ , or, before the two first numerals, pa. In the specimen we find  $m\bar{a}cho\ hu$ - $m\bar{a}th$ , goat young one, where hu is a generic prefix. Houghton gives  $z\bar{u}n$  for animals and birds;  $th\bar{e}k$  for fishes, arrows, etc.;  $b\hat{a}$  for reptiles; lun for long things; and lo for flat things. Fryer has zum for quadrupeds;  $th\bar{e}k$  for fish; and yum for reptiles.

Pronouns.—The following Personal pronouns are given by Houghton (H) and Fryer (F):—

Singular,—

naung, (H), naun (F), thou.  $ay\bar{a}$ , he, she, it. kyē, I.  $ay\bar{a}$ , his. naun(g), na(F), thy. kyē, ka, my. kyé-gu (H), mine. naung-gu (H), thine.  $ay\bar{a}$ -gu, his. na-hoi pa-nhi, yahoi (H); Dual, naun(g)-nhi, you two. kyē-nhi, we two. ya-nhi (F), they two.  $na-hy\acute{a}$ ,  $y\ddot{a}-ti$ ,  $ay\ddot{a}-hy\acute{a}$  (H); Plural, naun(g)-me, you. ayatti, ya-ti (F), they. kyē-me, we.

Houghton also adds pa-nhi, two, in the first and second persons dual. In the specimen and the list of words received from Chittagong the personal pronouns are represented as follows:—

There is no mention of a dual, but forms ending in ni are given as plural forms, in addition to such ending in mi. They are probably duals.

First person.—Instead of  $ky\bar{e}$ , I, we find  $ke\bar{a}i$ ,  $k\bar{e}i$ ,  $kh\bar{e}$ , and ke, all probably representing  $ki\bar{e}$  or  $ky\bar{e}$ . Instead of  $ky\bar{e}$ -gu, mine, the list gives  $k\bar{e}i$  kheo, and the specimen  $k\bar{a}i$ -ko in  $k\bar{a}i$ -ko ke kon, my share, lit. probably 'me-of my share.' The form kai-ni occurs thrice, and is translated 'me.'  $K\bar{a}y$ - $\bar{a}$  is 'me-to.' In the plural we find  $k\bar{e}i$ -mi, we, but in the conjugation of verbs  $kh\bar{e}$ -ni and kei-ni, which seem to be duals. I cannot analyse the form  $k\bar{u}t$ -ka, our.

Second person.—For 'thou' the specimen gives nang, the list of words nung, and also nung-ni, in nung-ni ni-mai, thou art. Nung-ni is perhaps 'you two.' Nung-kheo in the list, and nang-ko in the specimen, correspond to Houghton's naung-gu, thine. 'You' is translated by nung in the list, but we also find nung-nya mai, you were, and nung-ni mal, you strike. Nung-ni and nung-nya are probably the dual. Compare nang-ni-ā in the parable.

Third person.—The stem of the personal pronoun of the third person seems to be ai or oi. Thus, ai-lā mal-shā, he strikes; ai-kheo, his. The form ayā occurs in ayā mai, he is. We also find the form  $\bar{a}$ -ni, which is the usual form in Chinbök. Other forms for 'he' are formed by adding some noun meaning 'man.' Thus, oi-krong-ong and oikhrong-ya, that man, he; ai-nghāt-ni, he. I cannot analyse this latter word, which is also written enghāt in enghāt mai, he was. Oi seems also to be the first component of oching sh, he, which occurs thrice in the specimen. The list of words furnishes choikhrong, he. Choi is probably a demonstrative pronoun, corresponding to Lushēi chu, that; thus, choi-khrong, that man. Nang won is translated 'his property' in the parable. Nang is probably written for  $n\bar{a}$ , from the demonstrative base  $n\bar{a}$ , that, he. The pronoun nā, that, also occurs in some old Kuki dialects, such as Pūrūm, etc. Compare also the plural na-hyá, they. The whole sentence nāng won nāng-ni-āh o-chingah ka-ni fai-pek must therefore be translated 'his property them-to he dividing gave.' In the plural we find  $\bar{a}$ -nhi, they, or perhaps 'they two,' in the parable, and the following forms in the list: ai-kūl, a-khal, and a-kal, they. Kūl means 'twenty', and is perhaps used to denote an indefinite number. Ai-ā pēk, their, in No. 31, seems to mean 'he gave.'

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Demonstrative pronouns.—Ni, this; tho, that. Instead of the Fryer gives to and to-ni, and the parable and the Chittagong list ai or oi, ai-ni and ai—ni. Ni, this, may also be added to other pronouns, apparently in order to emphasise; thus, kai-ni, me; aing kāt-ni, he; and perhaps nung-ni, thou See Personal pronouns, above. A pronoun mai, this, seems to occur in mai-nhi-la-je, them of; or perhaps 'and.'

Relative pronouns.—There are only a few instances of relative clauses in the parable: nāng chau mutho krak māth-ong khom-iong wān-thong āi-kungām pai māth-ā nā-pek-nāng, thy son woman bad-conducted one-with joining property-threw-away (compare Houghton's tong, to throw away), him-for feast one thou-gavest, thou gavest a feast for thy son who lost his property in company with a harlot. Here the two clauses are simply put together without any word denoting the relation between them. Another instance is: kei-ā imhai-on e-kha-ni nāng-ko, me-to being all-this thine, all that I have is thine. A participle here supplies the place of a relative pronoun. E-kha-ni probably corresponds to Fryer's kho-kho, all. Fryer and Houghton state that the suffixes of the relative participle are gu (Fryer), gü, kü, and di (Houghton). Compare lāi-tan-di, cultivator; mā-keong-di, a shepherd, in the list. Houghton remarks that the ordinary tense termination may also be used to form relative participles; thus tü-ā lō-wō khlaung, now came man, the man who has now come; compare āni ā-lhom-lo-wā ā-mi-kho-ā, he far-off he-was-time-at.

Interrogative pronouns.—Several forms occur, but I can do little more than to enumerate them.

Who?—The list of words gives nung-wong, but in 240 we find u-yam; thus ni wan ni u tha  $\bar{a}$ -lē yam, this thing this whom from you bought? This form corresponds to Captain Lewin's u- $\bar{a}m$  and Hodgson's u-liam. Houghton and Fryer give ani and ani-n $\bar{u}$ .

What?—The list of words gives your, Captain Lewin imam, which seems to be a misprint for Hodgson's iniham. In the parable we find ethoniyam, what is the matter? The interrogative pronoun seems to be e-yam, and thon-i apparently corresponds to  $tain-\tilde{e}$ to be suitable, to be the matter with, to be, in Houghton's vocabulary. Another form ya or ya-om occurs in nung mi ya, thy name what? ni-thak Kashmir prē ya lam-la, herefrom Kashmir country how far? på im-å chå pa-chung ya mai om, father's house-in child male how many are? ni chey e-ya achak mai dākā, this horse-of which age is? E-ya in the last instance seems to mean 'how much.' Da-ka is probably an interrogative particle; compare Lai dakò. Ya in e-ya is perhaps written for yo, compare  $hyau-\bar{u}m$ , how much? given by Hodgson and Lewin. Houghton gives pa-hyō, and Fryer pi-hio, how many? Pa and pi in these forms must be compared with the generic prefix with numerals. Compare however pi, which, what? in Fryer's sketch. The parable seems to give an instance of this pronoun in the sentence kāi-po ku āgnā-chegnā pā hobong omi, for which I think we must read kāi-po ku āngā-chengā pā-ho bong omi (or ā-mai), my-father's many servants-to how-much bread is? Compare phong, to bake, in Houghton's vocabulary. Baung, what? is mentioned by Houghton and Fryer. Compare Sivin  $\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{a}ng$ , what?

Indefinite pronouns.—Indefinite pronouns seem to be formed from the same stems as the interrogative ones. Houghton gives ani-pa  $s\bar{s}s\bar{i}$ , anybody, and baung-pa  $s\bar{s}s\bar{i}$ , anything. In the parable we find u-hi, anybody; thus,  $u-h\bar{i}-hi$   $\bar{a}ni-\bar{a}$  ai-pegah, anyone him to food-gave not.

**Verbs.**—Abbreviated forms of the personal pronouns are prefixed to the verbs in order to indicate the person and number of the subject. These prefixes are as follows: ka, I; na, thou; a, he, she, it, they; na, we two, you two; ma, we, you. The vowels of these prefixes are sometimes long and sometimes short in the parable, and their quality also varies, apparently after the quality of the following vowel. The dual and plural forms na and ma are taken from Houghton and Fryer. The former remarks that the prefixes cannot be dropped in the first and second persons, while a can be prefixed at pleasure to the third person, and also to the imperative. The practice in the parable and in the Chittagong list is very inconsistent. We find  $k\bar{a}$ , ka, ke, ko, and ku, I;  $n\bar{a}$ , ni, and  $ng\bar{e}$ , thou; khi-ni, we; nya, you. Very often the prefixes are dropped.

The root alone, without any suffix, is freely used to denote present and past times: thus, nung ni mal, thou strikest; no-lek châ-là c-po-a hopek, the youngest son his-fatherto said; khe ke mal, I am striking, I have struck; pū chū-nū ka-nak, (my) uncle's daughter I-have-taken, etc. This form is also used as a kind of relative participle; thus, āni ālhom-lo-wā ā-mi-khoā, he way-far-at he-was-time-at, when he was still far off. khoā the specimen gives khoāh and khoyā, and Houghton khwā for khoā. Some suffixes are apparently added without altering the meaning. In the parable we find a few instances of the suffix ai or āi used in this way. Thus, no-khom-ai, joined; pān-āi, called. In the Chittagong list we find khe ke chet-āi, I go. In khē ke ka ta nēi, I am, we have perhaps the same suffix. Ei in tan- $\bar{e}i$  may, however, represent  $\bar{e}$ ; see Compound verbs, below. A verb thon, to be proper, to be, seems to occur in the parable. Compare tan-ē, to be suitable, to be the matter with, to become, to be, in Houghton's vocabulary. In om-i, there is, i seems to be used in the same way as ai. Houghton gives  $\ddot{u}$ , and Fryer u as the suffix of the present tense, and ai is perhaps an attempt to denote the sound ii. Houghton remarks that  $\bar{o}$  is substituted for  $\vec{u}$  when the final vowel of the verb is  $\bar{o}$ ; thus, kyē ka lō-w-ō, I come. According to the same authority the more northerly Chins use hü instead of o. Compare Siyin hi. Another suffix which seems no more to have a distinct meaning is  $sh\tilde{a}$ , also written cho and cha. Thus,  $ai-l\tilde{a}$  mal- $sh\tilde{a}$ , he strikes; aichet-cha, he goes; khe ke chet-cha, I went. In khe ke mal-ai-sha, I strike, ai and sha are both added.

A Present definite is, according to Houghton, formed by combining the participle ending in  $n\bar{a}$  with the verb  $\tilde{a}n$ , to be; thus, baung saih- $n\bar{a}$  na  $\tilde{a}n$ - $\bar{u}$ , what doing you are? The Chittagong list uses the root as a present definite; thus, ai-ni chak pck- $\bar{a}$  ka keong, that hill-of top-on I tending-am.

An Imperfect seems to occur in khe ke mal-hiā-a, I was striking. Houghton and Fryer have no corresponding form.

Past tense.—Houghton gives ni- $\ddot{u}$  and Fryer ni-u as the suffix of the past. The former states that the Northern Chins use ni- $h\ddot{u}$  instead of ni- $\ddot{u}$ . There is apparently no corresponding form in the parable. Ai- $kung\bar{a}m$  poi  $m\bar{a}th$ - $\bar{a}$   $n\bar{a}$ -pek- $n\bar{a}ng$ , him-for feast one thou gavest, may perhaps contain this suffix in the form  $n\bar{a}ng$ , but it is more probable that  $n\bar{a}ng$  is the personal pronoun of the second person, the order of words being apparently false throughout the specimen. In  $n\bar{u}ng$   $\bar{a}iyung$   $ng\bar{e}$  chet, thou wentest,  $\bar{a}iyung$  or  $\bar{a}iyung$   $ng\bar{e}$  means formerly. Compare ayang- $gy\bar{i}$ - $gy\bar{i}$  in Houghton's vocabulary.  $Ng\bar{e}$  is, however, probably a miswriting for  $n\bar{e}$  or na, the pronominal prefix of the second person.

The suffix of the *Future* is ai. Houghton gives aih and Fryer ei. The h in aih is the 'spiritus lenis.' See Pronunciation, above. Thus,  $k\bar{a}$  chet-ai, I will go; ko

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hopek-ai, I will say. Shá may be added; thus, khē ka būp-āi, or būp-āi-shá, I should beat. The latter form seems to be properly used as an infinitive of purpose.  $tan-\bar{e}-ai$ , I may be, we have the same suffix. With regard to  $\bar{e}$  see Compound verbs, below. The future suffix ai is different from the ordinary affirmative suffix ai, i, or ii, mentioned above.

The suffix of the Imperative is, according to Fryer, e. Houghton gives e and we, bhoi, nhaung-e, and nhaung-bhoi in the singular, bhoi-zü and zü-he in the plural. He also mentions the imperatives  $\hat{a}n$ -baih-i and  $\hat{a}n$ -i, be thou. The suffix e is also found in the vocabularies of Hodgson and Lewin. In the Chittagong list it occurs in lawe, i.e., law-ē, take, and probably also in chet-ēi, walk, and tan-ei, i.e., thon-ē, be. A form corresponding to Houghton's nhaung-e seems to occur in the corrupt passage chenang-kei āhai ongko āinilhāje kāpao, let us eat and be merry. I understand this passage as follows: che-nang-e ā-hai-ong-ko āinilhāje kā-pyā-ong, come to-be-merry and to-feast. The imperative is usually formed without any suffix in the list; thus, che, go; mal, strike;  $p\bar{e}k$ , give. Sometimes a or  $\bar{a}$  is prefixed; thus, a- $\bar{e}i$ , eat;  $\bar{a}$ -lau, bring. I have not been able to analyse the passage nang kai-ni opong a-tho-ai, you me servant make. A-tho-ai is the imperative of a verb which occurs in many connected forms of speech, and means 'to do.' Opong may correspond to Burmese a-phaung, companion.

The suffixes of the negative imperative are ne and di (Houghton) or ti (Fryer). There are no instances in the parable.

Infinitive—Houghton states that verbal nouns are formed by means of the prefix a: thus, a- $l\bar{o}$ , the coming. By suffixing the postposition  $\bar{a}$  an infinitive of purpose is effected. e.g., ayā a-mán-ā, in order to seize him. The same idea may also be expressed by adding the suffix ong; thus, ayā mán-ong, in order to seize him. Fryer says that the future is used as an infinitive. The suffix  $\tilde{a}$ , without any prefix, seems to occur in the parable in oi ainghāth-ni owok kro-ah na-theh, he him swine to-tend sent; perhaps also in ochingāh thā eahmeah, he was in want, if eahmeah can be explained as ai-ā mai-ah, to eat was not; compare however eyaih-yan, food, in Mr. Houghton's dictionary. The suffix ong seems to occur in  $\bar{a}$ -hai-ong-ko, to be merry. The form ending in  $\bar{a}i$  or  $\bar{a}i$ -sho, probably identical with the future, is used in several places. Thus, ko-hon lui-yāi ting-khin-ai, the stomach to fill he wished; nang chau a-thon-ai-cho heya, thy son to-be is-unfit; kei-ni pyā-wai-sho thomai, our feasting good is, it is good that we should feast. In the list of words we find another infinitive ending in na; thus, tan-ei-na, to be.

Participles.—Fryer mentions the relative participle ending in gu, for which Houghton gives the suffixes  $g\ddot{u}$  or  $k\ddot{u}$  and di. The latter further mentions a present participle ending in  $t\ddot{u}$ , an adverbial participle ending in  $n\ddot{a}$  and having the meaning of a conditional, and a conjunctive participle ending in na, aih-gü, or aih-gü-plī-dá. Before this na a suffix pa is inserted, or  $h\bar{a}$  is prefixed to na if the participle refers to the first person, and di if it refers to the second or third person. A conjunctive participle ending in agu, after, also occurs in the fable given by Fryer and reprinted below.

In the parable and the Chittagong list we find the following forms. A suffix ong or iong seems to form Adverbial participles; thus, khom-iong, joining. Compare the postposition ong, with. In keiah imhaion ekhani nang-ko, me to being all thine is, a similar suffix on seems to form a Relative participle. Conjunctive participles are formed by adding a suffix nā or nāk; thus, mal-nā, beating; khed-nāk, pitying. Often la-che or lāche is added; thus, ai-na-la-che, eating; thognā-lā-che, i.e., probably thong-nā-lā-che,

arising. Another suffix of the conjunctive participle ends in ba-lā or be-lā, and seems to correspond to Mr. Houghton's participle in pa-na. Thus, thoong-ba-tā-jeh, naving arisen; chon-ung-be-lā, having run. The form mai-dek-shā, having struck, seems also to be a conjunctive participle. Chetā-lachē, going, apparently corresponds to the participle ending in tā mentioned by Mr. Houghton. In ochingah kanifai-pek, he dividing gave, there is probably no participle, but kanifai-pek is a compound verb. I am also uncertain about chet-cha, gone, in No. 219. The samé suffix seems to occur in owok-lā ai-cho, swine by eaten, and in anila ālolo cho-powoi, which perhaps should be corrected to āni-la ā-loin-cho-po-woi, he having come to senses said, but I am unable to analyse the single words.

A Noun of agency seems to be formed by means of the suffix di; thus,  $l\bar{a}i$ -tan-di, a cultivator;  $m\bar{a}$ -keong-di, goat-tender, shepherd.

There is no Passive voice. Instead of 'I am struck' we find 'he strikes me', or 'I suffer a striking.' Houghton gives khán and Fryer sun-ey as the verb used to form compounds with the meaning of a passive. The Chittagong list gives khe mal khe ke mē, I am struck; yā khē mal khē mē, I was struck; khel mal khamei shā, I shall be struck. These forms perhaps contain a verb khām corresponding to Mr. Houghton's khān; thus, kyē mal-khām-ai-shā, I beating-suffer-shall. In the parable we find āni krok pungdung ko-bun-āl, he was lost, now he is found again, lit. I found him again.

Compound verbs are freely formed in order to modify the meaning; thus, ho-pek, said, perhaps corresponding to hau, say, and pek, give, in the vocabularies of Houghton and Fryer; ka-ni-fai-pek, divided and gave; compare phē, divide, in Houghton's vocabulary. Fryer remarks that the letter n frequently precedes verbal roots. To this n corresponds a prefix beginning with n in the parable; thus, na-thek, send; ni-honjak, wasted all; no-khom-ai, joined. Another prefix po seems to occur in nolāi ko-pohuth, sin I did. Houghton and Fryer mention several verbs which are added in order to form compounds with a modified meaning; thus, bo, to return; dat or dhāk, to dare; kho or thē, to be able; la, to get, to must; sē, to cause; woi, to wish, etc. In the parable we find āl, again; āhe, to be about; ē or i, apparently only emphasising, or, according to Mr. Houghton, conveying the sense of the middle voice; jak, all; and nānā, much. Thus, tho-wāl, came back; ku-du-āhe, I am dying; khe ke tan-ē-ai, I may be; komi-ong, cohabiting, compare Houghton's khân-ē; ni-hon-jak, wasted all; mānpok-nānā, abused much, was angry, etc.

Negative.—Houghton and Fryer both state that a hard initial consonant is softened in the negative verb, not, however, among the Northern Chins. Houghton mentions several negative particles, most of them containing the syllable  $n\ddot{u}$ , i.e., the ordinary suffix  $\ddot{u}$  with n prefixed. He also states that in the negative verb no distinction is made, as a rule, between the present, past, and future tenses. According to Fryer the negative particle is n, m, or mb, and may be prefixed to the verb, or to the suffix, or to both. In the parable the negative particle is  $\ddot{a}$ ; thus, ai-peg-ah, to eat gave not; he- $y\ddot{a}$ , it is not proper; compare pi- $\ddot{a}$ , bad, in the list. In  $heongn\ddot{a}$ , disobeyed not, n seems to be prefixed to  $\ddot{a}$ , if ngn is not simply a miswriting for ng. The negative  $\ddot{a}$  perhaps corresponds to the suffix ai which, according to Houghton, is prefixed to di in order to form negative participles. Thus  $l\ddot{o}$ -wai-di khlaung, the man who does not come. According to the same authority negative participles are also formed by prefixing a and suffixing  $k\ddot{o}n$  or  $k\ddot{o}$ , boi or  $b\ddot{o}$ -boi. In the parable  $w\ddot{a}ng$ - $a\ddot{a}$ - $b\ddot{a}$  seems to be a negative participle; thus,

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āni im-dukā vāng-ā-lā, he house-into not-entering. Another negativa the seems to seem in nāng kai-ni mā-cho hu-māth ā-pek-the, you me goat-young one guye not.

The Interrogative particle is mo or min and, according to Houghton, also in There is no instance in the parable. Another particle  $d\bar{d}k\bar{d}$  seems to occur in No. 221. See Interrogative pronouns, above.

The Order of words is extremely inconsistent in the parable. The regular order, however, seems to be subject, direct object, indirect object, verb.

### Difference of dislect.

The preceding sketch shows that there are at least two dialects of Sho,—a northern spoken in the Chittagong Hill Tracts, and a southern spoken in Sandoway and the neighbouring districts. Some of the principal points where the two dialects differ will be mentioned in what follows. For convenience's sake I have used the following abbreviations:—

Ch.=forms occurring in the specimen and list received from Chitcagong.

F. =Major Fryer's grammar.

H. = Mr. Houghton's grammar.

Ho.=Captain Phayre's list, published by Hodgson, 1354.

Ph.=Captain Phayre's old list, published 1811.

I have drawn attention to the fact that we often find r in Ch., corresponding to l in F. and H. We find the same uncertainty in the old lists; thus, khro, moon in Ph., but khlau in Ho. Captain Phayre remarks that l often is pronounced almost as y, and in his old list he gives  $ky\bar{a}ng$ , man, corresponding to Ho.  $kl\bar{a}ng$ . He thinks that the word  $khy\bar{a}ng$  or Khyeng, the name of the people, may be a corruption of the word for 'man.' All these facts show that the pronunciation cannot be distinct.

In many instances we find final m and n interchanged; thus, Ch. alhom, way; Ho.  $l\bar{a}m$ ; H. alhán; Ph. lang: F. alhem, big; H.  $lh\bar{e}n$ : Ch. and Ho. im, house; F. iqm; H. in: Ch. F., Ho. thum, three; H. thun, etc.

Sometimes both forms occur in the same dialect; thus, Ch. thom and thon, to be suitable, to become; F. khoam and khon, to meet with, etc. In Ch. mu-tho, a female, as against H. na-tho, the two sounds are initial. It will be seen that n prevails in H., and I have not found any instance of a final m in this dialect. In the northernmost dialect, on the other hand, final m is most frequent. It seems probable that m is in most cases the original sound, and that it has been changed to n under the influence of Burmese, where final m becomes n or ng.

The numeral 'ten' is given as ngha or ha in F. and H. Ngh and h are thus interchangeable, and the form ngat or  $ng\bar{a}t$ , one, in Ch. can thus be identified with H. ha, and F. hat. Considering the inconsistent spelling in Ch. there is no difficulty in assuming that ngat is written for nghat. Ho. gives nhat, while Lewin has mhat, corresponding to the form occurring in the parable. Compare also Buchanan poo-nha, five; F. and H. ngha.

Sometimes l and n are interchanged, thus in the suffix of the agent, Ch.  $l\bar{a}$ , F. na, H.  $n\ddot{u}$ ; compare Lai ne, Banjōgī  $n\dot{i}$ , Siyin  $n\ddot{a}$ . The l in Ch. is probably false and due to the inability of the interpreter to distinguish the two sounds.

Other discrepancies are due to the use of prefixes; thus, Ch. and Ho. thi, iron; F. and H. nthi: Ch.  $l\bar{u}$ -ki, head; Ho.  $l\bar{u}$ ; F. ma-lu; H. a- $l\ddot{u}$ , etc.

In the declension of nouns the most important difference is to be found in the formation of the plural. This point is, however, of small importance, there being no real suffixes of the plural. And the number of words which convey a plural sense is, of course, so great that a comparison is here impossible.

With regard to adjectives we have found the same particle of comparison in Ch. and H., while F. seems to differ.

The personal pronouns are, broadly speaking, the same in Ch., F., and H. The greatest difference is to be found in the third person, but is there also insignificant. The interrogative pronouns, on the other hand, are quite different in Ch. from the forms in F., H. Ch. is, however, very confused, and the form u-yam, who, in Ch., and u-liam in Ho. might perhaps be the same as a-ni, i.e., probably a+ the demonstrative pronoun ni, in F. H.

The difference in the conjugation of verbs is greater. Ch. uses the root alone to denote present and past tenses, while H. adds the suffix  $\ddot{u}$ , and F. u in the present, and form the past tense by means of a suffix ni, with the same addition  $\ddot{u}$  or u. With this addition we may compare o in Tibetan,  $\ddot{u}$  in Khāmtī, Shān, etc. The future, on the other hand, is identical in Ch., F., and H., and this fact is of special importance. The other discrepancies in the conjugation of verbs are of relatively small importance. In the formation of the negative F. and H. state that a hard initial is softened. This principle does not occur in other languages of the Kuki-Chin group. The *prefixed* negative in F. agrees with the Burmese negative, while the negative in the Kuki-Chin group is suffixed. Compare Introduction, p. 19.

Such are the chief differences between the northern and the southern dialects. The dialect spoken in the Minbu district is again different from that of the Sandoway district. And there are also many other dialects, but Mr. Houghton states that the differences are philologically unimportant.

I have printed the Parable of the Prodigal Son as I have received it. I have in a few places subjoined, within parentheses, corrected forms. As a second specimen I have reprinted a short fable according to the text given by Major Fryer, and have added an interlinear translation. In the list of words I have made no corrections, but I have added the corresponding forms from Messrs. Fryer and Houghton, and these make it possible in many cases to see what is the meaning of the corrupt forms in the Chittagong list. I have retained the sign a to denote the sound of a in 'organ' in the words taken from Major Fryer.

[No. 36.]

## TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

### KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

SHÖ OR KHYANG.

(DISTRICT, CHITTAGONG HILL TRACTS.)

### SPECIMEN I.

châ-lā ā-chau puchung-ni mhai. Mai-nhi-la-ie no-lek Khrong māth-ā Them-two-of younger Man one-to child male-two were. 801 kon kāy-ā pek.' Nang kāi-ko ke ' Pāu hopek, ā-po-ā fatherme-of share me-to give. Hissaid. my father-to a-chāu ochingah ka-ni-fai-pek. Kro-khong-ah no-lek won nang-ni-ah divided-gave. Time-short-in younger 80N he property them-two-to ā-lhom-lo-wā chet. Oi-āh oi-krong-ong ai-nghāth-ni pre-āh pongiyal went. There he way-far-in country-to and(?)gathered-all ai-khokhā ai-mitiah a-thon. metia won Ochingah ni-hon-jak. that-village-in famine arose. after-spent(?) goodswasted-all. Пе māth-ā oi-pre-āh Oi-khrong-ya khrong thā eah-meah. Ochingāh one-with that-country-in food-was-not(?). Пe man 0,f HimOi-lā. owok-la ai-cho kro-ah na-theh. ainghāthni owok Oi no-khom-ai. Hepigs-by eaten swine tend-to sent. He himjoined. Ani-lā ting-khinai. U-lā-hi āni-āh ai-peg-ah. ko-hon-lui-yāi ai-na-lache Anyone him-to food-gave-not. He intended. belly-to-fill eating pā-ho āgnā-chegnā (i.e. āngā-chengā) ku 'Kāi-po ālolo-cho-po-woi, how-much servants-to said-to-himself(?) ' My-father's many ku-du-āhe. Keāi thognā-(i.e. thongā-)lāche bong om-i; kāi-chā mut-ā arisen-having hunger-with I-dying-am. I bread I ā-po-cheng-āh kā-chet-ai oi-ah ko-hopek-ai, "O-pāu, keāi nādāgā-sing-ā no-lāi sinmy-father-to I-go-will him-to I-say-will, "O-father, God-to I ā-thon-āi-cho chegnā(i.e. chengā); nāng-chau heyā: ning keāi ko-pohuth, is-not: to-be thy-son I thee to: I-committed. singva(i.e. singā) ā-tho-āi." Āni thoong-ba-lā-jeh ā-po nāng kai-ni opong to his-father make." Hearisen-having thoume servant(?) Ā-po-lā ā-po-lā ā-mu. khed-nak. ā-mi-khoāh. āni kāi. Āni ā-lhom-lo-wā father he-saw. His-father pitying, he-was-time-at his went. Heway-far-at āi-ni-lbā-je ā-nhom. Ā-cho-lā krau. chonung-be-la, ā-cho nhālung he-kissed. His-son and his-son's neck-on fell, running, ko-po-huth. no-lai hopek. nādāgā sing-ā 'O-pāu. keāi ā-po-ā I-committed to sinI said, O-father, heaven his-father-to

singnā, keai nāng-cho a-thon-ai-sho he-yā.' Ā-po-lā āgnā ah (i.e. ā-ngā-ā) thy-son to-be is-not.' His-father servants-to Itheeto. kuth-ung ʻIu poi āni-āh sau-sok, koi-chip āni ā-lau, ho-pek, 'Cloth good bring, him-on put, hand-on hisring said. āni ā-khung fānāp thon, che-nang-kei āhai-ongko āini-lhā-je māth thon. his foot-on shoe put, come to-make-merry one put,kāpao (i.e. ka-pyā-ong); e-kung-um kei chau ā-du-pungdung ā-heng-yāl, my son he-dead-was-after he-came-alive-again, for to-feast; ko-bun-āl. Ānhi pyā-al. krok-pungdung āni I-found-again.' They feasted. he lost-after

Āi-chā āni chāu chāng-cha lāi-yāh a-mai. Āni im-kenā thowa-thaison the-elder field-in he-was. He house-near drew-nigh-Nowhiskho-yā ni-thon ni-dung ā-iok. Āni-la āgnā (i.e. ā-ngā) māth pānāi āinilhāje when dancing music he-heard. He servant one calledand 'E-thoniyom?' Āgnalā (i.e. ā-ngā-lā) hopek, 'Nāng no-leck-cho e-hi. he-asked, 'What-is-the-matter?' The-servant said, 'Thy younger-brother nāng-po-lā poi-pek, e-kungum āni khoāth-cho āni ka-bun-āl. tho-wal. came-back, thy-father feast-gave, for he safe-being him got-again. mān-pok-nānā. Āni im-dukā wāng-ā-lā, e-kungum āni A-tā The-elder-brother abused-loudly. He house-into entering-not, therefore his ā-pol. Āni-la ā-po pranga ā-kāi, ainilhaje ā-po-āh hopek, Keāi ni-yā father outside he-went, and he-entreated. He his-father-to said, 'I ku kum keāi āgnā (i.e. ā-ngā) nāng, nāng khau heongnā keāi, nāng many years I thy order disobeyed-not I, thou servant thy, kai-ni mā-cho hu-māth ā-pek-the kā-khām-bo-nāng kolo kāyāipu. Nāng me goat-young one gavest-not my-friends-with merry to-feast. Thychau mutho krak math-ong khom-i-ong wan-thong ai-kungam pai son woman bad-conducted one-with cohabiting all-lost him-for feast māth-ā nā-pek-nāng.' Ā-po-lā ā-chau hopek, 'O-chau, nāng kai-ni ko-nāng thou-gavest. His-father his-son-to said, 'O-son, thouwith me nha-mai. Kei-ah imhaion, nāng-ko. Kei-ni pyā-wai-sho thomai, ekha-ni thou-art. Me-to being thine.all-this to-feast We-two good-is, ękungum näng no-le**k-cho** ā-heng-yāl, ā-du-pungdung āni thy younger-brother he-died-after he-is-alive-again, for he krok-pungdung ko-bun-āl.' lost-was-after I-found-again.'

## TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

## KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

SHÖ OR KHYANG.

## SPECIMEN II.

(DISTRICT, SANDOWAY, ARAKAN.)

# FABLE OF THE TWO WILD DOGS AND THE TIGER.

(Major G. E. Fryer, 1875.)

Note.—The vowel a denotes the sound of a in 'organ'; the acute accent indicates the rising tone, the grave accent the falling tone.

Yōkhā pōm-ūi züm-nhī pon-ā ōn-ù-hói. Klā agū pom-ui-**Formerly** forest-dog twoforest-in lived.  $\hat{T}ime$ after forest-doghān zūn-hōt pom-ui-nu zūn-nhī a-tank-ey-ū. Na-wō maleone forest-dog-female tvoowere-born. They-quarrelled theyhau-ey-nü-agù pom-ūi-nü zūn-nhī pūm-hōt-zūn-hōt phe-ev-u-hói. forest-dog-female talked-havina two one one divided. Pom-ūi-hān zūn-hōt kiuān-agū. 'Kie a-nü-na. holai ką khōn-ū. Forest-dog-male oneremaining. the-mother, 'I suffering I found. kie dön ką buan-ey-ei a-shang-ev-ū.' A-pō-na, 'Kie ka-payā ka T only I get-shall it-proper-is.' The father,  $^{\epsilon}I$ my-wife-of Ι boi-bō, kie dön ka-buan-ey-ei a-shang-ey-u.' Na-wō namaster-am, I only I-get-shall it-proper-is.' They-quarrelled theyhau-nü-agù akié-tayi on-duan-a sit-ù-hói. Phō-agù akyé-täyi-na, talked-having tigerabode-to they-went. Arrived-having the-tiger, 'Kie ōn-duan-ā na-phō-ū,' tö a-sō zūn-nhī. a-nü-ā pūm-hōt, · My abode-to you-came, thoseyoung-ones two. · mother-to one, a-pō-ā pūm-hōt pe-brī-agà pom-ūi-hān SÕ zūn-hōt kiuan-agu to-give-finished-having forest-dog-male young father-to oneoneremaining a-mlüng-ā khon-ū a-phē-ū. A-nü-na ą-pō-nạ na-sō yō middle-in severedhe-allotted. The-mother the-father their-child's corpse mhū-agù kất-ù-hói, ' akié-tayi nfkhā Ö. na-sei-ei n-shang-ey-nu. seen-having cried.'tiger 0, thusthou-cut-shouldst not-proper-is. Na-sō γō akié mhon-gon-ā bō-ù-hói. tong-ū Their-son's corpse tiger *before* threwreturned.

### FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

In the olden time, two wild dogs lived in a forest, and after a while had three young ones, a male and two females. Subsequently they quarrelled, and on dividing '(their

property) each took one of the females. The male which remained the mother claimed saying, 'He is my share, I have borne him about with me, with great suffering, therefore I ought to have him.' The father said, 'I being the husband and lord over my wife, ought to have him.' Thus disputing they went to the abode of a tiger (to have their case decided). On arriving there, the tiger said, 'So you are come to me, are you!' and having given one of the young ones to the father, and one to the mother, he cut the remaining male down the middle, and gave half to each of them. The parents looking on the dead body of their young one, lamented bitterly and said, 'My lord tiger, you ought not to have divided in this way.' Then they threw down the dead body of their young one before the tiger, and went away.

### KHAMI.

The Khamis are settled on the Koladyne River in Arakan, and on the upper part of the Sangu River, in the Bohmong Chief's circle of the Chittagong Hill Tracts. The Arakanese Khamis state that they were formerly settled in the hills now occupied by the Shös. According to Major Hughes they lived in the hills about the middle of the nineteenth century. Sir Arthur Phayre found them in the hills bordering the Koladyne River, and stated (in 1854) that they had not been settled there more than five or six generations. They had gradually expelled the Mrū, and were themselves driven westward and southward.

Their number in Burma, at the Census of 1891, was 14,126. About 500 Khamis have been returned from the Chittagong Hill Tracts, but Captain Lewin states that 'their numbers fluctuate, as year by year some families either go to, or return from, their relatives living on the Koladan in Arracan. The journey is always made by a well-known pass across the hills, leading from the Sungoo River over Modho Tong. The distance is a short two days' journey.'

According to Sir Arthur Phayre there are two divisions of the tribe, the Kamis and the Kumis, which are called Awa Kumi and Aphya Kumi by the Arracanese. Awa means 'mouth of a river,' and aphya, 'the source.' Mr. Houghton was, however, not able to hear of any such people as the Kumis in Arakan. In the texts now received from Chittagong we find the word written khu-mi and khai-mi. The correct form seems to be kha-mi, and this word is also used in the general sense of 'man,' 'human being,' the abstract idea of a man in general being unfamiliar to this and other connected tribes in the same manner as the abstract ideas of 'hand,' 'foot,' etc. The Burmese and Arakanese usually call this people kwey-mi, dog's tail, a nickname which Captain Lewin thinks is due to the fact that the Khami wears 'a very scanty breech cloth, which is so adjusted, that a long end hangs down behind them in the manner of a tail.' Mr. Houghton suggests that the form Kumi is a corruption of khwey-mi.

The Rev. L. Stilson states that the tribe, which he calls Kemi, does not extend farther south than about twenty miles north of Akyab. In stature this people are generally below the average of the inhabitants of the country. In features, they resemble the Burmese, but they are mostly of a lighter complexion. They wear but little clothing. According to Major Hughes they are divided into 22 clans, and they live in numerous small villages. They are said to be an industrious race. The following account is abstracted from Sir W. Hunter's Statistical Account of Bengal:—

Owing to their proximity to the independent and predatory tribes, the Kumis are more warlike than the majority of the hill people within our boundary. Their villages are generally situated on the top of a lofty hill, and are regularly stockaded and fortified. The village has generally but one door, and this is defended by a winding passage trebly stockaded. The door itself is of solid timber, studded from top to bottom with thickset bamboo spikes. Outside the village are lofty look-out stations placed at intervals, where a watch is kept day and night; the steep slopes of the hill are rendered difficult of ascent by chevaux de frise of bamboo, while the ravines below are strewn with caltrops. In one village Captain Lewin noticed a most extraordinary stronghold in a tree. It was a small house built of shot-proof logs of timber, and elevated about a hundred feet from the ground in the branches of an enormous tree that grew in the village. The hut was capable of holding about twenty persons; it was loopholed all round and in the floor, and was reached by a ladder which could be drawn up when necessary. The Kumi houses are all built of bamboo, with a thatch of palm-shaped leaves found in the jungle, and are elevated eight or ten feet from the ground.

'The religion of the Kumis is the same as that of the other Toungthá ["Sons of the Hills"] tribes, and they offer sacrifices to the spirits of the hills and rivers.'

An account of the laws prevailing among the Khamis has been published by Major Hughes.

There is no written literature. The dialect spoken in the Akyab district, Arakan, has been reduced to writing by the Rev. L. Stilson, of the American Baptist Mission, who printed a reader and a spelling book about the year 1850. But the books remained unused as the mission was withdrawn from the Khami territory.

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A translation of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and a list of standard words and phrases have been received from the Chittagong Hill Tracts. Both are very corrupt, and the remarks on Khami grammar, which are based on these texts, are given with the utmost reserve.

**Pronunciation.**—The spelling is very inconsistent, and very little can be said regarding the sounds of the language. A spelling like who for  $h\bar{u}$ , which occurs twice, shows that no reasonable system of transliteration can be expected. It would be of no use to mention all the irregularities in the spelling, and I shall only draw attention to such

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points as seem to give a clue to the actual pronunciation. A is sometimes interchangeable with o; thus,  $t\bar{a}$ -ya, and ki-yo, belly;  $t\bar{a}i$ -cha and  $t\bar{a}i$ -cho, sister; a and o, to, in. It is probable that a is, in such cases, written for  $\tilde{a}$ . Before n and m, a and  $\bar{a}$  are interchangeable with u or  $\bar{u}$ . Thus,  $n\bar{a}ng$  and nung, thou; dan-di and  $d\bar{u}ng-di$ , young; nām-pūi and nūm-pūi, woman; ang-thāo and ung-da, to stand, etc. In nūm-pūi the  $\bar{u}$  seems to be correct; compare, e.g., Rangkhol  $n\bar{u}$ -pang; but in most of the other instances connected languages usually have a or  $\bar{a}$ . A is also interchangeable with eo; thus, kang-nga and keong-o, horse; tlangwa and tleongo, than, the particle of comparison: ya and yeo, go, come, etc. The actual sound is perhaps ö. The same sound is perhaps intended in khāi and kheu, put. An e is probably meant in words such as pa, pāy, pai, peu, and  $py\bar{a}$ , to give. It is however also possible that the vowel itself is very indistinctly pronounced, its colour being influenced by the surrounding vowels. In a similar way we find chah, chāah, chāi and chwey, to go. Ai is interchangeable with u in khai-mi or khu-mi, a man. This is the name of the people, the word for 'male' being nung-chu. The form of the word which is used in Arakan is kha-mi, and the same sound is probably meant in the Chittagong texts. Au and ei are both found in  $d\bar{a}u$  and dei, to die. The northern dialects have an i in this word, and so also Taungtha a-shi. But Shö has du or  $d\ddot{u}$ , and the latter sound is perhaps also meant in the specimens. Im, a house, is perhaps also written for üm. We may infer this from the form um given by Sir Arthur Phayre. In khi, khio, and kheo, to, from, we apparently have the same sound, the  $\ddot{u}$ being in fact an i pronounced with the rounding of the lips peculiar to o. In the same manner an  $\ddot{o}$  is effected when the lips are rounded while pronouncing e, and we have perhaps this sound in the word long, lhong, or leong. U is apparently written for o in chū=cho, child, etc. In other words it seems to represent an ü, as, for instance, in the female suffix nū. This suffix is generally, in connected languages, identical with the word for 'mother'. In the list we find neh, mother, for which Captain Lewin gives nūoi. Compare Shö nū and nü. Latter says that nhu, two, is pronounced nhū; thus also  $\bar{u}$  in  $pl\bar{u}$ , four,  $t\bar{e}$ - $r\bar{u}$ , six, and  $s\bar{e}$ - $r\bar{u}$ , seven. The diphthongs  $\bar{u}i$  and ue are perhaps written for the same sound; thus, tūi, water. The form tü actually occurs in one of the lists published by Mr. Houghton. In a similar way we find thue and thu, to say (Phayre thoi), perhaps for thü; ung-mue, name, probably for ang-mü, compare Shö a-mi. 'Four' is  $pl\bar{u}$ , i.e., p- $l\bar{u}$ . In connected languages this numeral takes the form li, and  $pl\bar{u}$  is therefore probably written for  $pl\bar{u}$ .

Two concurrent vowels are perhaps contracted in nhu if this word is written for nai-o or na-o, is not; thus,  $k\bar{a}eh$   $n\bar{a}ng$  chopo-lon nhu, I thy son (to be) not worthy. Nhu can, however, also be explained as n-hu. Compare the suffix u or hu of finite tenses in Shö. Euphonic y and w are sometimes inserted between two vowels; thus, pya-yo, gave not; pai-ya, to give;  $ang-th\bar{a}-w\bar{a}$ , I will arise.

Final consonants are sometimes silent; thus deik and dei, to die;  $ning-th\bar{u}n$  and  $ning-th\bar{u}$ , back, etc. Latter remarks that all final consonants are silent; they are formed in the mouth, but not pronounced. In other words, they are semi-consonants or tone-indicators. II is especially very often added at the end of a word; thus,  $k\bar{a}i-\bar{a}h$ , me-to; thue-pah and thue-pa, said;  $\bar{a}m$ -n $\bar{a}h$  and  $\bar{a}m$ -n $\bar{a}$ , brother.

K seems sometimes to be written for ch; thus  $t\bar{a}$ -ko and  $ch\bar{a}$ , to go; keppo and chopo, son;  $kinn\bar{u}$  and  $chin\bar{u}$ , daughter. Khuiah, I will say, is certainly only a miswriting for thue- $\bar{a}$ , or  $th\bar{u}$ - $\bar{a}$ , I will say. D is perhaps written for n in dung for nung or  $n\bar{a}ng$ , thou.

N is sometimes interchangeable with m and with ng; thus, am-yeo and an-yeo, he went;  $n\bar{a}ai$  and  $ng\bar{a}ai$ , father;  $b\bar{a}n\bar{a}$  and  $b\bar{a}ng\bar{a}$ , in, etc. In the specimen gn is always written instead of ng. This sound seems also to be interchangeable with h; thus,  $h\bar{a}$ , to get; but  $k\bar{a}i$  gna-ai kothue, I getting property, my share. Latter has  $n\bar{a}$ , to get.

Both w and v occur; thus, van-reh and wan-reh, together with. The pronunciation is of course here the same in both cases. It seems, however, from the vocabularies published by Mr. Houghton, that both sounds exist in the language.

The writing of the aspirates is very inconsistent; thus,  $\bar{a}m$ -pho and  $\bar{a}m$ -po, father;  $ph\bar{a}k\bar{a}$  and  $p\bar{a}kh\bar{a}$ , to strike, etc.

There are also instances of interchange between hard and soft consonants; thus, palun-thung and bolungthung, merry; ang-thāo and ung-da, to arise, etc.

A consonant between vowels is often doubled; thus, hunni instead of  $h\bar{u}$ -ni, he. This is probably only a peculiarity of spelling, and does not mark a different pronunciation of the consonant.

One of the vocabularies published by Mr. Houghton shows that the language possesses at least two tones, the light and the heavy one. The tones are not marked in the Chittagong texts

Articles.—There are no articles. A word long, leong, or lhong seems to be used as an indefinite article with nouns denoting human beings. Thus, khu-mi lhong-reh, one man. Leong is a generic prefix with numerals. In  $k\bar{e}ppo$  leong  $m\bar{a}$   $y\bar{e}$   $r\bar{e}$ , how many sons? it is used in a similar way. The numeral  $h\bar{a}$ - $r\bar{e}$ , one, is used as an indefinite article in No. 138 and f.

**Nouns.**—Several prefixes are used before nouns, apparently without any meaning of their own. Thus, we find  $\bar{a}m$ -po, father;  $\bar{a}m$ -n $\bar{a}$ , younger brother; ung-mue, name; ka-nao, neck; ka-n $\bar{u}$ , ear; ki-ni, sun; ka-si, stur; ka-wa and ta-wa, bird; ki-yo and  $t\bar{a}$ -ya, belly; le-b $\bar{a}$ o, mouth;  $p\bar{a}$ -lai, tongue; chi-khi, deer, etc.

Gender.—Gender is only distinguished in the case of animate beings, and only when it does not appear from the context. In the case of human beings different words are often used; thus,  $ng\bar{a}\bar{a}i$  and po, father; neh, i.e., probably  $n\ddot{u}$ , mother:  $y\bar{a}$  and  $n\ddot{a}$ , brother; tai- $ch\ddot{a}$ , sister:  $n\bar{u}m$ - $ch\bar{u}$ , man;  $n\bar{u}m$ - $p\ddot{u}i$ , woman. The two last words are also used as prefixes in order to distinguish the gender; thus  $n\bar{u}m$ - $ch\bar{u}$   $ch\bar{u}$ , (i.e., cho), man young, son;  $n\bar{u}m$ - $p\bar{u}i$   $ch\bar{u}$ , daughter. The common suffixes in the case of human beings seem to be po, male, and  $n\bar{u}$ , female. Thus, cho-po, child male, son;  $kinn\bar{u}$  and  $ch\bar{u}nn\bar{u}$ , daughter. The form  $ch\bar{u}nn\bar{u}$  is probably more correct than  $kinn\bar{u}$ . It consists of  $ch\bar{u}=cho$ , child, and the female suffix  $n\bar{u}$ . If the  $\bar{u}$  is not only written for o, it must be due to the following vowel which is probably  $\bar{u}$ , and not u. In the case of animals we find the male suffixes  $p\bar{u}$ - $t\bar{u}$ , for large animals, and lo, for smaller animals, and  $n\bar{u}$  for the female. Thus, shi-ra  $p\bar{u}$ - $t\bar{u}$ , a bull; shi-ra  $n\bar{u}$ , a cow:  $\bar{u}i$  lo, a dog:  $\bar{u}i$ - $n\bar{u}$ , a bitch. The male suffix for birds is  $l\bar{u}$ ; thus,  $\bar{u}$ - $l\bar{u}$ , a cock. The word go-gro-ma, a harlot, is Burmese, and the female suffix ma does not occur in Khami.

Number.—We have apparently three numbers, singular, dual, and plural. The dual of nouns is always denoted by adding the numeral 'two'. But there is apparently a dual suffix hoi, which occurs after pronouns, and is also found in Shö. The plural suffixes are apparently nai and nā. Sir Arthur Phayre states that noi means 'much', and every word meaning 'much', 'many', etc., can probably be added in order to convey the meaning of plurality. Such words are perhaps bai-ba and kē. Bai-ba

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seems to be connected with bang, the common plural suffix in Sir George Campbell's list. The following are instances of the plural,  $\bar{a}m$ -po  $n\bar{a}$ , fathers;  $\bar{a}m$ -po nai- $n\bar{a}$  kheo, from fathers;  $n\bar{u}m$ - $p\bar{u}i$  hoi- $n\bar{a}$  nai, good women; khai-mi bai-ba tlong-hoi  $k\bar{e}$ , good men, etc.

Case.—The Nominative and the Accusative do not generally take any suffix. The postposition o, in, to, is, however, sometimes added to the object of a transitive verb; thus, hu-ni dung-di-o pā-khā-nā-nung, his son (I) struck much. The suffix lah seems to denote the agent as the subject of a transitive verb. It does not, however, occur more than once in the specimen. Thus, cho-po-lah ām-po-na thue, the-son his-father-to said. It is translated 'eldest' in this place, as if it were the same as lan.

The Genitive is denoted by putting the governed before the governing noun; thus,  $k\bar{a}i\ \bar{a}m$ - $pr\bar{a}'\ ch\bar{\imath}nn\bar{\imath}\ k\bar{a}i\ l\bar{a}$ , my uncle's daughter I have married. But we also find a suffix e or o added to the governed noun; thus,  $n\bar{a}ng\ po$ -e immo, thy father's house-in; kung-leong keong-o gin, the white horse's saddle. The corresponding suffixes in the Arakanese dialects of Khami are ung and in.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are :—  $\bar{a}$  or o, in, to, from;  $b\bar{a}ng$ , and  $b\bar{a}ng$ - $\bar{a}$ , in, at; inna, from; khi, khio, and kheo, to, from; mo-o, before; na, to; ning- $th\bar{u}$ -o, behind; ya, to, etc. The forms leo and  $il\bar{a}o$ , which are translated 'of,' in the list, are probably no postpositions but a substantive meaning 'property' or something of that sort. They do not occur in the parable. They may also be the suffix of the agent.

**Adjectives.**—I have found the following prefixes used before adjectives:  $\bar{a}$ , in  $\bar{a}$ -chāng, high;  $k\bar{e}$ , in  $k\bar{e}ss\bar{a}$ , near; and pa or pha, in pha-lo, far; thus, hi-inna Kashmir  $pr\bar{e}$  pa-lo mo, here-from Kashmir country far? is it far from here to Kashmir?

Adjectives generally follow the noun they qualify and postpositions and suffixes are then added to them, and not to the qualified noun. Thus,  $k\bar{a}i\ \bar{a}m$ -po (written  $\bar{a}m$ - $p\bar{a}$ )  $h\bar{u}$ - $ni\ im$ -cho- $o\ om$ , my father that house-small-in is. Sometimes the adjective precedes; thus,  $hoi\ ka$ -ni, best robe. Sometimes the suffix  $n\bar{a}$  is added to the adjective; thus, khai- $mi\ hoi$ - $n\bar{a}\ leong$ - $r\bar{e}$ , a good man. This  $n\bar{a}$  is probably the suffix of a relative participle. The negative particle is inserted before this  $n\bar{a}$ ; thus, dung- $di\ leong$ - $r\bar{e}\ hoi$ -e- $n\bar{a}\ leong$ - $r\bar{e}$ , a bad boy.

The particle of comparison is tlang-wa or tleong-o; thus,  $h\bar{u}ni$  tai-cho tleong-o  $\bar{a}$ -cheang, he sister than high. The suffix  $k\bar{e}$  may be added to the adjective in the comparative, and  $t\bar{e}p$  in the superlative; thus,  $h\bar{u}ni$  tlang-wa  $\bar{a}$ -chang- $k\bar{e}$ , him than high-more; hoi- $t\bar{e}p$ , good-most, best. Campbell gives noi-hoi, better; hoi-na-hoi, best; and a-shiang- $b\bar{e}$ , highest.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. They follow the noun they qualify. Instead of  $\bar{a}$ -rey, one, the proper form seems to be  $h\bar{a}$  or  $h\bar{a}$ -re, in No. 138 ff. Other dialects have han and  $h\bar{a}$ .  $R\bar{e}$  seems to be optionally added to all numerals. The form  $p\bar{a}$ , five, seems to be abbreviated from pa-nga; compare Taungtha p'nga, Chinbōk mha. The p in  $pl\bar{u}$  is a prefix. The same is the case with  $t\bar{e}$  in  $t\bar{e}$ -r $\bar{u}$ , and  $t\bar{a}$  in  $t\bar{a}$ -ka, probably also with  $s\bar{e}$  in  $s\bar{e}$ -r $\bar{u}$ , and  $t\bar{a}i$  in  $t\bar{a}i$ -ya. I have only found two generic prefixes leong and  $tl\bar{a}p$ . Leong is also written long, lhong, and lon. It is used when the numeral refers to a person; thus, cho-po long-nhu-reh, two sons. But it is also used alone after nouns; thus,  $\bar{a}m$ -p $\bar{u}$  leong kheo, from a father;  $k\bar{e}ppo$  leong  $m\bar{a}$  y $\bar{e}$  r $\bar{e}$ , sons how many? The prefix  $tl\bar{a}p$  seems to be used with reference to money; thus,  $h\bar{u}$ -ni- $\bar{e}$  vang  $tl\bar{a}p$  nu-r $\bar{e}$ 

ba-khai, that-of the-price rupees two a-half. The word  $t\bar{a}nk\bar{a}$ , a rupee, is thus replaced by  $tl\bar{a}p$ .

**Pronouns.**—There is great confusion in the list with regard to the *Personal pronouns*. The following forms seem to be certain:—

Singular,-

 $k\bar{a}i$ , I.  $n\bar{a}ng$ , thou.  $h\bar{u}$ -ni, he.

 $k\bar{a}i$ , my.  $n\bar{a}ng$ , thy.  $h\bar{u}$ -ni and  $h\bar{u}$ -ni-o, his.

Plural,—

 $k\bar{a}i$ - $ch\bar{e}$ , we.  $n\bar{a}ng$ - $ch\bar{e}$ , you.  $h\bar{u}$ -ni- $ch\bar{e}$ , they.

First person.—The form  $k\bar{a}i$ -la, of me, is probably the case of the agent. The form  $k\bar{a}i$ -ma, is said to mean 'mine.' A dual form seems to occur in  $k\bar{a}i$ -hoi kon- $\bar{a}$ , we should-make-merry, and perhaps in  $n\bar{a}ng$   $k\bar{a}eh$  kaihow wanreh, thou art ever with me. I understand this sentence as follows:  $n\bar{a}ng$   $k\bar{a}i$   $k\bar{a}i$ -hoi wan- $r\bar{e}$ , thou I we-two together (are).

Second person.—The list gives dungdi, thou and you. For 'your' it gives dung-di nung-khi. The specimen always has  $n\bar{a}ng$ , and the d is probably only a miswriting. In the specimen we also find  $n\bar{a}ng$ , thine. The form  $n\bar{a}ng$ -chē, you, is inferred from No. 160, nung-kē dung-di tē, you are. The writing of k for ch has been noted under Pronunciation. In No. 220 we find the form nung-ē, thy, i.e.,  $n\bar{a}ng$  with the genitive suffix  $\bar{e}$ . See Nouns above.

Third person.—The list gives  $h\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{e}$  and hunni, he. I have written  $h\bar{u}$ -ni with the specimen, but I am not certain about the correct spelling, the forms ha-nai, ha-ne, and ho-nai being recorded from Arakan. But ni also occurs in the curious form ni-ni-van, for his sake. It is probably identical with the demonstrative pronoun ni which occurs in many connected languages.  $H\bar{u}$  is also used alone as a personal pronoun; thus,  $h\bar{u}$ -o, him to, in No. 234. A form ame, he, seems to occur in ame-a-cham-bo, he divided. The list gives  $h\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{e}$ - $k\bar{e}$ -ya, they, but in No. 161 we find ni- $ch\bar{e}$ , and in No. 167  $h\bar{u}$ -ni- $ch\bar{e}$ .  $H\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{e}$ - $k\bar{e}$ -ya is also translated 'their', and is perhaps written for  $h\bar{u}$ -ni- $ch\bar{e}$ - $\bar{e}$ , with the genitive suffix  $\bar{e}$ .  $H\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{e}$ - $k\bar{e}$ - $l\bar{a}$ , of them, probably contains the suffix of the agent. A form hunilo, they, occurs in hunilo bolungthung hoya-hoy

Demonstrative pronouns.—The following forms occur:— $hinn\bar{u}$ , this;  $h\bar{u}$ -ni, that; ommo, that. Hinn $\bar{u}$  probably means hi-ni, hi being the stem. We find also hi-inna, herefrom, and hi may also be added to personal pronouns in order to emphasise; thus,  $n\bar{a}ng$ -hi, thy, in the specimen. The forms  $h\bar{i}$ - $n\bar{a}i$ , this, and  $h\bar{o}$ - $n\bar{a}i$ , that, are recorded from Arakan.

There are no Relative pronouns, relative participles being used instead. There is apparently only one instance in the specimen, kaeh awe-na nāng, my being is thine. The passage is perhaps corrupt, but we may infer that the suffix of the relative participle is na or nā. Compare the form hoi-nā, good. In one of the vocabularies published by Mr. Houghton we find ā-pēk-de kha-mi, given-having man. Here we have the suffix de which is probably identical with di in dan-di, the younger. Instead of chopo dan-di, the younger son, we ought perhaps to read dung-di cho-po, young-being son. In boi-boy sum-kan-khum, all spent when, the verb sum, without any suffix, is apparently used as a relative participle, kan-khum probably meaning 'at the time.' The future is perhaps used in the same way in kāi gna-ai ko-thue, for kāi ngā-ā ko-thue, I get-shall property, the share which I shall get.

Interrogative pronouns.—Ami-mo, who? ā-ti-mo, what? ā-ti-a-mo, why? mā-yē-rē-mo, how many? Thus, nāng-ē ning-tho-o āmi-mo ung-hūi, thy back-at who walks? him-la

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a-ti, this what? Ami-mo seems to consist of the pronoun  $\bar{a}mi$  or ame, he, and the interrogative particle mo. Ati-mo apparently also occurs in athimulam, because, i.e., probably  $\bar{a}ti$ -mo-lam, what-for? why? Athen-no-kon- $\bar{a}h$ , for, seems to contain  $\bar{a}$ -ti-mo, what? and a word kon- $\bar{a}$ , which apparently means 'reason-for'.

Indefinite pronouns.— $H\bar{a}$  or  $h\bar{a}$ -pa means 'anybody'; thus,  $h\bar{a}$  pa-pya-yo or  $h\bar{a}$ -pa pya-yo, anybody gave-not. The form  $\bar{a}$ -pāi-me, anybody, is recorded from Arakan. Boiboy is translated 'all', and ati-lo seems to mean 'nothing'; thus, hu-ni-khi ati-lo, be (began) to-be-in want lit. him-to nothing. Ati-lo consists of the interrogative stem  $\bar{a}ti$ , what, and the negative lo. Compare, however, Burmese lo, to be wanting.

Verbs.—The pronominal prefixes which form so characteristic a feature in most languages of the Kuki-Chin group are apparently wanting in Khami. We find, however, some traces of a prefix a in the third person singular. Thus, a-thoom, he joined;  $\bar{a}$ -peh, he fell. The same prefix is also used before an imperative, in  $\bar{a}$ -p $\bar{a}u$ , give. The absence of the prefixes may be owing to inadvertence. We find, however, a somewhat corresponding fact in Rāngkhōl, where the prefix of the third person singular is often used in all persons and numbers. In  $k\bar{a}i$   $\bar{a}m$ - $kh\bar{a}$  ka  $kh\bar{a}m$ , I striking I receive, I am struck, we apparently have the pronominal prefix ka of the first person singular.

The root alone, without any suffix, is generally used to denote present and past time; thus,  $k\bar{a}i$   $\bar{a}m$ -po  $h\bar{u}$ -ni im-cho-o om, my father that house-small-in lives; ing lam tha, music dance (he) heard;  $w\bar{a}i$ -ni  $k\bar{a}i$   $k\bar{a}m$ -lo chwei, to-day I way-far have-walked. In  $k\bar{a}i$ - $ch\bar{e}$ , we are, the verb seems to be dropped.  $K\bar{a}i$ -a, I was, is perhaps written for  $k\bar{a}i$ - $\bar{a}$ . Latter gives au, to be.

A Present definite seems to be formed by prefixing baimo; thus, kāi baimo pā-khā, I am striking. I cannot analyse the form.

There is no instance of an *Imperfect*. Kāi yang-ni-o pā-khā, I was striking, literally means 'I past-time-in strike.'

Past tense.—The form  $y\bar{a}ng-ni$   $p\bar{a}$ - $kh\bar{a}$   $k\bar{a}i$  (sic), I had struck, literally means 'past-time strike I. A suffix pa, bo, or bau, occurs in several forms of the past tense. Thus, thue-pa, said; a-cham-bo, he divided;  $k\bar{a}i$   $t\bar{a}k$ - $k\bar{u}$ -bau, I went. The last mentioned words are, however, also translated 'I go.' A verbal suffix pa, signifying completion, is recorded from Arakan, and seems to be identical. A suffix ta occurs in  $t\bar{a}k\bar{a}n$  nai-ta, famine arose;  $hin\dot{g}$ -ta, came alive, etc.

The suffix of the Future seems to be a or ā; thus, kāeh āng-thāwā kāeh ampo-khi chāiyā, I will-arise my father-to go-will. Another suffix mi, probably the Burmese mi, seems to occur in kai tēo-mi, I shall be. The form kai pākhā paiyā, I may strike, seems to be an ordinary future, and literally to mean 'I striking give-will'.

In  $k\bar{a}i$   $p\bar{a}$ - $kh\bar{a}$   $kinn\bar{u}$ , I shall strike, we have a third suffix,  $n\bar{u}$  or ki- $n\bar{u}$ . Campbell gives neuh, and Latter  $n\bar{a}k$  and ga- $n\bar{a}k$ . This suffix is according to Latter also used in the present tense. Compare No. 179 in the list.

The root alone is used as an *Imperative*; thus, pah, give; kheu, put; lo, take. The future is used as an imperative of the first person plural; thus, bhō ban-chay-a, food letus eat. In No. 168 we find nāi-mi, be.

The root is also used as an Infinitive or Verbal noun; thus, ki-yo koi kāmo-nho, stomach to fill wished; im the kun-o, house enter would-not. A verbal noun is apparently also formed by prefixing  $\bar{a}m$ ; thus,  $\bar{a}m$ -khā, striking, from  $p\bar{a}$ -khā, strike; e.g., kāi  $\bar{a}m$ -khā ka khām, I striking I receive, I am struck. The suffix of the infinitive of

purpose is a or  $\bar{a}$ , identical with the suffix of the future; thus, pai-ya, to give, to spare;  $kon-\bar{a}$ , in order to make merry;  $p\bar{a}-kh\bar{a}-wa$ , to strike. In  $n\bar{a}i-ba$ , to be, the b is probably written for the euphonic w.

Participles.—The various forms of the Relative participle have been mentioned under Relative pronouns. Another suffix of this participle seems to be  $v\bar{a}ng$  in  $n\bar{a}i$ - $v\bar{a}ng$ -mi, being, lit. being-man. The suffix  $w\bar{a}i$ , in  $t\bar{a}kk\bar{u}$ - $w\bar{a}i$ , going, is probably the same as  $v\bar{a}ng$ . In  $t\bar{a}kk\bar{u}$ -bau, gone, we have the same suffix bau which we found in the past tense.

There is no certain instance of an Adverbial participle. Pākhā, beating, may be one, and also thue-ah in hūni thue-ah thu-thu, he said to himself, lit. perhaps 'he saying said.' A Conjunctive participle is perhaps ung-pā-khā, having struck.

The idea of a Passive voice is effected periphrastically. The verb  $kh\bar{a}m$ , probably meaning 'to get,' 'to suffer,' seems to be generally used for that purpose. Thus,  $k\bar{a}i$   $\bar{a}m$ - $kh\bar{a}$  ka  $kh\bar{a}m$ , I striking I suffer, I am struck.  $P\bar{a}kh\bar{a}$   $\bar{a}mt\bar{e}$   $kinn\bar{u}$ , I shall be struck, seems to mean lit. 'strike-being-future.'

Compound verbs are apparently very freely used; thus,  $la-y\bar{a}$ , run-go, run; la-khao, take-put, bring. Sometimes the reduplication of the root seems to denote intensity; thus, koi-ma-koi, entreat. I have found the following prefixes: ang or ung, na or ne, and  $p\bar{a}$ ; thus,  $ang\text{-}th\bar{a}o$ , to arise; ung-te to sit;  $n\bar{e}-khra$ , to pity;  $p\bar{a}-kh\bar{a}$  to strike;  $pa-n\bar{a}h$ , to kiss.  $T\bar{a}$  in  $t\bar{a}kk\bar{u}$ , go, is probably also a prefix. Compare also an-yeo and am-yeo, went, where, however, an and am is perhaps the pronominal prefix. Adverbial modifications are effected by adding words such as bom-bom, highly, well;  $n\bar{a}\text{-}nung$ , much, etc.

The Negative particle is o. Thus, pa-o, gave not; a-o, disobeyed not. In hoi- $\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{a}$ , good-not-being, bad,  $\bar{e}$  is used instead of o. A negative lo, corresponding to the Lushëi form, seems to occur in  $h\bar{u}$ -ni-khi ati-lo, him-to nothing, he began to be in want. Lo is, however, perhaps identical with the Burmese lo, to be wanting. The meaning of the sentence would then be 'him-to everything was wanting.'

The Interrogative particle is mo. See Interrogative pronouns.

Order of words.—There is no consistent order of words in the specimen. It seems, however, that the rule is subject, direct object, indirect object, verb.

## Dialectic differences.

It will be seen from the list of authorities that several Khami vocabularies have been published, and it is of interest to compare them. The comparison of nouns and verbs is, however, almost impossible, because we never know whether the translations given of the same word in different lists are really synonymous. I shall therefore only compare the numerals. To avoid repetition I have used the following abbreviations:—

- Ch.—The forms occurring in the specimen and the list received from Chittagong.
- PI.—Sir Arthur Phayre's Kami vocabulary, published by Hodgson.
- PII.—Sir Arthur Phayre's Kumi vocabulary, published by Hodgson.
  - HI.—Maung Hla Paw Zan's Kami vocabulary, published by Houghton.
- HII.—Mg. Tha Bwin's Kami vocabulary, published by Houghton.
  - Hu.—Major Hughes' Kamee vocabulary.
    - L.—Lieut. Latter's Khūmi vocabulary.
  - S.—Rev. L. Stilson's Kemī vocabulary.

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I have not considered the two vocabularies published by Sir Arthur Phayre in 1841, His Koladon Koomi mainly agrees with PII., and his Mee Koomi with S. The two vocabularies given by Captain Lewin in most particulars agree with PI.

Ch. is taken down in the Chittagong Hill Tracts, and PII. in the hills on the upper part of the Koladyne River. Hu. and L. belong to the same district, while the rest, HI., HII., PI., and S. are from Akyab. These vocabularies can therefore be divided into two geographical groups, one northern comprising Ch., Hu., L., and PII.; and one southern comprising HI., HII., PI., and S. The following table shows the numerals in these lists:—

		Ch.	Hu.	L.	PII.	HI.	HII.	PI.	S.
One		ha-rē	ha-ree	nhāh	bā	han-tâ	han	hā	hān
Two	•	nū-rē	ahu-re	nü	ոհն	ka-ni	nī	ni	nî
Three	•	thäng	tun-re	thūn	tūm	ka-tōn	thông	ka-tün	thūng
Four	•	plū	pa-lü-re	p'lü	pa-lū	ma-li	mlē	ma-li	ma-lī
Five	•	pā	pan-re	pāng	pān	bun-ngā	ba-ngā	pang-nga	bo-ngā
Six	•	tē-rū	ta-ru-re	t'-rü	ta-rū	ta-ru	tu-ru	ta-ū (sic)	ta-grū
even		sē-rū	sa-ru-re	s'-rü	sa-rū	sri	sē-ri	sa-rī	5-11
Eight	•	tāi-ya	ta-ya-re	tē-ya	ta-yā	te-ya	ka-yā	ka-vā	ka-yā
Nine	•	tā-kâ	tukkā-re	t'-khau	ta-kau	te-kâ	ta-kâ	ta-ko	ta-kō
l'en		hoh	hå-re	ho	hau	ka-su	khā-sok	ha-suh	khrā-s'a
wenty!		ā-pām		a-pong-re	a-pum-rē	pe-so	kü-suh	kū-suh	kūi-s'a
lifty.		wei-pā		wi-pang-re	wi-pā-ri	khwe-bun-ngā	kūi-pang-ngā	kū-i-pāng-ngā	
Iundred		chūng-vāi		chūn-wai-rē	chūm-wā-ri	ta-yā	- 0 0	ta-rā	ta-grā

The two groups which were distinguished above from a geographical point of view, appear again here. They correspond to the divisions called Aphya Kūmi and Awa Kūmi by the Arakanese.

Mr. Stilson has given a short grammatical sketch of the dialect spoken on the Mee River, a branch of the Koladyne, some seventy miles above its mouth at Akyab. I take a few notes from this work, comparing it with the forms in Ch. and in the notes furnished by Lieutenant Latter.

**Nouns.**—Génder.—S. gives the male suffix  $p\bar{a}$ , and the female  $n\bar{u}$ , corresponding to po and  $n\bar{u}$  in Ch., poh and  $n\bar{u}$  in L. L. further mentions the male suffixes  $ch\bar{\imath}a\bar{\imath}u$ , for human beings; p'-ting, for large animals; loh, for small animals; and  $l\bar{\imath}uhi$ , for birds. Ch. has  $p\bar{a}$ -tai-corresponding to p'ting, and lo, corresponding to loh. The suffix  $l\bar{\imath}u$ -hi probably occurs in  $\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{\imath}u$ , cock.

Number.—S. has the plural suffix  $k\bar{\imath}$ , HI. tak, L.  $ch\bar{\imath}$ . Compare the plural suffix in pronouns in Ch.

Case.—S. gives  $n\bar{a}i$ ,  $m\bar{a}$ , and  $l\bar{a}$  as the suffixes of the Nominative; compare Ch. lah. The genitive is, according to S., expressed by putting the governed before the governing noun, or by means of the suffix ung. Ch. has the same principle, e and o corresponding

to S. ung. The suffix  $\bar{a}$ , corresponding to Ch. o may be added to the object. L. has no remarks on case.

**Pronouns.**—'I' is  $k\bar{a}i$  both in S. and in L. 'Thou' is nong in S., and nan in L.; compare Ch.  $n\bar{a}ng$ . The pronominal plural suffix is  $s\bar{i}$  in S., corresponding to  $ch\bar{i}$  in Ch. L. has no instances. The interrogative pronouns in S. are  $ap\bar{a}i$ -me, who? and ta-ai-me, what? L. does not mention them.

Verbs.—The suffixes  $k\bar{a}$  and te are added to the verb, without modifying the sense, in S.; Hu gives de, dat, and ka. L. has no suffix. S. has no suffix of the past tense, but pa may be added in order to denote completion. L. give the suffix bau, corresponding to bau in Ch. The suffixes of the Future are  $ma \cdot k\bar{a}$  and ti in S., makaing in HI., and  $n\bar{a}k$  or  $ga \cdot n\bar{a}k$  in L. Ch. has  $\bar{a}$ ,  $kinn\bar{u}$ , and mi. The suffixes of the Imperative are vi, i, and le in S. No suffix is added in L. and Ch. In the negative imperative na is added in S.,  $n\bar{o}k$  in HI., and mok in L. There is no instance in Ch. The suffix of the Infinitive of purpose is  $k\bar{a}$  in S., and  $\bar{a}$  in Ch. The negative particles are a in S., o in Hu and Ch., auk, au, and amon in L. The latter also knows a negative prefix b. The interrogative particles are ba, me, and tang in S., mon or maun in L., and mo in Ch.

It will be seen that the differences between the dialects are not important, and that L. generally agrees with Ch. as against S. We are therefore justified in saying that the different vocabularies belong to the same language. But there are two groups of dialects, one spoken in the north, and one in the south.

The translation of the parable which follows has been printed as I received it. I have only hyphened out the words and suffixes, and corrected obvious mistakes. I have also given the List of Words without corrections. I have, however, tried to add to it correct forms in a second column. In preparing this I have taken the forms given by Latter and Campbell, the latter within parentheses. Campbell's list is full of misprints and my corrections are not always certain. In the words taken from Latter I have placed the final consonants which he says are silent between marks of parenthesis; thus, che(k), go. Instead of his apostrophe, ('), to denote the vowel sound between two consonants I have used a small above the line; thus,  $k^a n \bar{\imath}$ , sun. Instead of his u, I have given  $\bar{u}$ , and instead of his oo, I have given u.

[No. 38.]

## TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

## KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

## KHAMI.

(DISTRICT, CHITTAGONG HILL TRACTS.)

Khu-mi lhong-reh cho-po long-nhu-reh om. Cho-po dandi am-pho na-yeo Son Man one-of tino were. young father 80128 thue-pa, 'Gnā-āi, kāi gna-ai ko-thue kāi-āh pah.' Huni ko-thue ame-a-cham-bo. me-to give.' He goodshe-divided. 'Father, my share-of goods dan-di wan-reh om-tan. Cho-po dan-di No-ākra-khāmo cho-po all-gathered. Son younger together 80n younger Not-many-days-after nowyom sung-kra kothue. Boiboy chāah. Hu-ni-oh kam-lo-ah pre-than riotously wasted goods. AllThere far country went. ati-lo. Hu-ni nai-ta. Hu-ni-khi hu-ni-oh tākān kankhum, sum He Ħе was-in-want. there famine arose. after, spent pre-banā khu-mi vanreh a-bhoom. Hu-ni hu-ni-oh tāi-chā-pay-a ao an-yio him He swineto-feed with joined. country-in man ... ment kāmo-nho. Ηā ра-руа-уо. koi Hu-ni ao-chā ki-yo pittām-la. belly to-fill intended-wilfully. Anybody gave-not. sent-field. Hе husksa-lāi-nāħ toko 'Kāeh am-pho ko-lu-lo thue-āh thu-thu. Hu-ni breadservants said. · My father's many He himself āng-thāw-ā kāeh Kāeh dee. kāeh angla pai-ya, nov-mano I arise-will my perish. I with-hunger to-spare, enough kāeh ka-ni-ka-long "Gnā-āi. ām-pho-khi khui-ah, chāi-yā am-po-khi God-to "Father, I father-to say-will, go-will father-to Nang khio. nāng cho-po-lon-nhu. kāeh nāng gnarā om-lo. Thou son-not-worthy. I thy thee to. committed, sin Hu-ni ang-thao, am-po-khi chah. Kam-lonāng-hi alainah pan.", kai-o father-to went. Distance-farservant make." Hе arose, thy me Hu-ni la-vā. ne-khra. hu-ni-oh nhu-u. ām-po hu-ni bāng He ran-went. had-compassion. father him 8aw, his atCho am-pho khio thue, 'Gnā-āi, ā-peh, hu-ni-oh pā-nāh. hu-ni-oh ka-nao to said, 'Father, kissed. Son father fell, him his neck nang cho-pokhio: kaeh nang gnara om-lo. kani-ka-long kaeh Ι thy 80nto: committed. thee sin God-to T 'Hoi kani lakhao, huni-oh kheu: ālainah thue-pah, lon-nhu.' Am-po bring, him-on Best robe said. Father servant not-worthy.' hu-ni khao fā-nāi ā-pāu, bho ban-cha-ya. keu ku-chā-buth kheu hu-ni-oh let-us-eat, give, food shoe hiз feet ring put hand his

pa-lun-thung-o-kowa, athinno-konāh kaeh cho dāu, a-leh-hing-ta; hu-ni let-us-be-merry, son was-dead, again-alive-is; for myhe , a-leh-ta, tama-we. bo-lung-thung-ko-ya-gnai. Hu-ni-lo lost-was, again-is-found.' to-be-merry-began. They

Waimo hu-ni-oh cho-po lan la Hu-ni om. im-o tom-ka chah Now hisbig field-in son was. He house-to near came lam tha. ing Hu-ni ālāināh lhong-reh Lhau hu-ni ding, dancing music heard. Heservant one calledhe asked. 'Himla-ate?' Hu-ni hu-ni-oh thue, 'Năng ām-nāh am-yeo, 'What-is-this-going-on?' He him-to said, 'Thy younger-brother came. nang am-pho rine athi-mu-lam hu-ni hu-ni-oh ti-bu-bu pa, hā.' Hu-ni father feast gave, thybecause he him safe got.' Hе a-ngey-tho-pa im-the-kun-o. Hu-ni-oh am-po nāmā hu-ni-oh theo. got-angry house-enter-would-not. Hisfather out came, him koi-ma-koi. Cho-po lah am-po-na thue, 'Ya-ko-lu-bo nāng klan-po entreated. Son eldest (sic) father-to 'So-many-years said, thynever ana kaeh am-nai wan-reh ao, kon-ā maya-cho pa-o: nāng orderdisobeyed, myfriends with to-amuse goat-young gavest-not; thy cho-po go-gro-ma wan-reh pa-vā, ni-ni-hi-ni-van po-wa pa sonharlots with devoured-living. him-for feast gavest nang.' Am-po cho-po-o thu, 'Nāng kāeh kaihow wan-reh, kaeh awe-na thou. Father. 80n-to said, 'Thou me ever with, · I have-what nang: kāi-hoi kon-a. athi-mu-lam nāng ām-nā dāu thine: we should-make-merry, for thybrother was-dead a-leh-hing-ta, hu-ni tāmā-we a-leh-ta.' again-alive-is, he lust-was again-is-found.'

# STANDARD WORDS AND SENTENCES IN SOUTHERN CHIN DIALECTS.

Englis	h.			Taungth	a (W. B.	Tydd).		Chinbõk (W. B. T	şdd).	Yawd	win (A. Ro	88).	Shö (Chitt»gong	Hill '	Fracts).	
l. One .	•	•	•	Pa-khat .	•	•		Tumat		Tumat .	•		Māt .	•		-
2. Two .	•	•		Pa-nip .	. ,		•	Nhi		Nhi .			Ni .	•		
3. Three	•	•		P*-thům .				Thum		Tum .	•		Thūm .		,	
4. Four .	•			Pa-li		•	•	Phi		Pyi .	•		Lhi .			
5. Five .		•		Pa-nga		•	•	Mha		Mha .	•		Ngha .			٠
6. Six .	•	•	٠	Pa-ru		•		Khrāk		Kroak	•		Sok-e .			
7. Seven	•			Pa-sari	• •	•		Serr		Khri			Shēy .			•
8. Eight	•	•	•	Pª-rip		•		Shit		Khret	•		Shet .			•
9. Nine .	•	•	•	Pa-kwa	• •	•	•	Ko		Ko .	•		Kâ .		•	
10. Ten .	•	•	•	Pª-rhā		•	•	Herār		Rhar	•		Ha .			٠
11. Twenty	•	•	•	Rui nip	• •	•	•	Um-ku		Ma-kön		• .	Kůl .		•	
12. Fifty	•	•	•	Rui ngā		•	•			Mha-gyip	•		Ngha gip		•	
13. Hundred	•	•	•	Та-уа	• •	•	•	Phys	•••	Pra			Krāt .			
14. I .	•	•	•	Kye		•	•	Che	•	Kamât			Kēi .		•	•
15. Of me	•	•	•		<b>**</b> ***						*****		Kēi kheo	•	•	
16. Mine .	•	•	•		******			*****			*****		Kēi .		•	
17. We .	•	•	٠	Kye-bu	• •	•	•	Kye-mi		Lhi		•	Kēi-mi .		٠	•
18. Of us	•	•	•		*** ***						•••••		Kēi-mi kheo	•	•	•
19. Our .	•	•	•		*****						•••••		Kūt-ka (sic)		٠	•
20. Thou	•	•	•	No	• •	•	•	Nan	• •	Hin	• •		Nung (i.e., n. throughout).	ang,	and	<b>\$</b> 0
21. Of thee	•	•	٠		******						••••••		Nung-kheo	•	•	
22. Thine	•	•	•	NT.	*****						*****		Nung-kheo	•	•	
23. You . 24. Of you	•	•	•	Nin	• •	•	٠	Nan	• (	Hin	• •	• •	Nung .	•	•	
25. Your	•	•	٠		*****			40000			*****		Nung-kheo	•	•	
KC. G	•	•	•		*****			0.00 p.00			*****		Nung .	•	•	

Shi	(Houg	hton	).			Shö	(Fryer)	•			Khami (Chittago	ng Hi	ll Trac	ts).	Khami (Latter and Camp	bell).		English.
Iâ .			•		Hot ,						Ārey .			•	Hā-rē		1	. One.
Thi .					Nhi		. <b>.</b>	•	,		Nûr .	•		•	Nü-rē		2	. Two.
hün .		•		•	Thum		•			•	Thing .				Thun-re		3	. Three.
fihi .	٠		:		Mli .		•				Plā ,			٠	Palii		4	. Four.
igho .	•		•	•	Ngho	•	•				Pā .				Pang		5.	Five.
Sok .	•		• .		Sop		•				Ťē-rū				T³rū		. 6	. Siz.
Si .	•		•	•	She		•			•	Sē-rā .				S-rā		7	. Seven.
Se .	. •		•	٠	Shap	•	•				Tāi-ya .				Те-уа		8	. Eight.
. o	•		•	•	Go .	•	•				Tā-kā .				Ta-kå		9.	Nine.
igha or b	а.			•	Ngha or	ha					Hoh .				Но	•	10.	Ten.
ło .	•		•	•	Goi	•	•			$\cdot  $	Ā-pūm .		•		A-pong-re		11.	Twenty.
lauk-kyit			•	•	Ngho gip		•	•		$\cdot  $	Wei-pa .	•	•		Wi-pang-re		12.	Fifty.
hyā-hâ	•			•	Pia-hot	•	•	•			Chẳng-vãi				Chām-wai-rē		13.	Hundred.
Cyè .					Kie .	,	•	•		•	Kāi .	•		$\cdot$	Kāi	•	14.	I.
lyë or ka					Kie or ka		•				Kāi-la			$\cdot$	900 100		15.	Of me.
Cyē-gu .					Kie-ku	,	•	•			Kāi-ma .	•	•		*****		16.	Mine.
ye-me .					Kie-me .		•	•		:	Kāi-chā .		•		Kāi-chē	•	17.	We.
	•••••					•	••••				Kāi-chē-ilāo	•		$\cdot$	***************************************		18.	Of us.
						•	••••				Kāi-chē-ey			•	Kāi-ohē-ē	•	19.	Our.
aung .					Naun .	ı		•			Dung-di .	•			Nang		20.	Thou.
aung .	. •				Naun or n	Ŗ	•			.	Dung-di lão	•			*****		21.	Of thee.
aung-gu					Naun-ku		•			. :	Dung-di chē .				<b>\$24.669</b>		22.	Thine.
aung-me					Naun-me				,	.	Dung-di .	•	•		Näng-chē		23.	You.
	*****					••	··••				Dung-di ilāo .	•	•		***		24.	Of you.
	<b>601 111</b>					••					Dung-di nung-l	khi			*****		25.	Your.

	Eog	isk.			Taungths	(W. B. 1	yðd).	Ī	Chinbôk (W. B. Tydd).		Yawdwin (A. Ross),	Shō (Chittagong Hill Tracts).
26. H	le .			•	A-ko	•			A-ni	•	Amhut	Choi-khrong
27. 0	f him	•			•						******	Ai-kheo
28. H	lis .								*****		*** ***	Ai-kheo
29. T	hey .		•		A-ko bu .		•	$\cdot  $	A-ni-mi		Amhut	Ai-kūl
<b>30.</b> O	of them	:		,		*** ***			*****		*****	Ai-kūl-kheo
31. T	heir	•	•	•		*** }**					*****	Ai-â-pēk
32. E	Hand	•	•		Kut .	• •		-	Kut		K <del>űt</del>	Kūt
33. I	Foot	• .		•		******			400 000		******	Khâ
84. N	Nose .	• •	•	•	Rhâ .		• '	$\cdot$	Ngha		Hā	Nakté
35. I	B <b>y</b> e .	•	•		мі	• .	•		Mekawi		Myier	Mik
36. 1	Mouth	•		•	Ka.	•	•		Um-rong		Ma-raung	Kå
37. 7	Tooth	•			На .		•	$\cdot$	На	•	Hà	на
38. 1	Ear .	•	•	•	Na				Ngha-phun	•	Hak-wai	Nākkū
39.	Hair .	•	•	•	Sam .	•			Luk-swi		Lā	Tsom
40.	Head	• ·	•	٠.	Lu.		•		Lup-pun		Kha-luk-kwai	Lūki
41.	Tongue	• ·	•	٠.	Le		•		Um-li . ·		Ku-mlai	Lei
42.	Belly ·	•	:	•	Am .		•		Pwe		Küp-pwe	Hun
43.	Back	•	•	•		*****			******		*	Ngung
44,	Iron .	•	•	•	Shi .	•	•		Amser	•	Mashi	Thi
45.	Gold .	•	:	•	Shwe .	•	•	• •	Swi	•	Rhwi	Hå
46.	Silver	•	•	•	Rhun .	•	•	$\cdot$	Ngwi		Ngwi	Hēn
47,	Father	•	•	•	Pa.		•	٠	Pa	•	Pa-o	På
	Mother	٠	•	•	I		•	•	Ngu		Nu-waing	Nā ,
	Brother.	+	•	•	Naba (younge	(elder) 7).	138	-pa	Kap-phwe (elder), (younger).	ke ma	Ka-pē (elder), ka-nā (younger).	Tā
	Sister	•	•		Thit	• •	•	•	Kap-pe (elder)	•	Ka-pē-nu (elder); paik-tha (younger).	Bē
	Man .	*	•		. Khan		•	•	Chen	•	Ра-ті	Khrong
52,	Woman	•	•		. Nura		•	•	Nga-mi .		No-mi	Mata

Shō (	Hough	ion).		Shā	(Fryer	<b>)</b> .	Kham	(Chitte	gong H	ill Tract	s).	Khami (Latter and Cam	pbell).	!	English.
Ayā .	. ,.		. Ays or	ya	•		. Hā-n	ĕ.			_	Hů oz ni	•	26.	He.
<b>.</b> .	••••••		.		•••••		Hā-n	ē ilāo .						27.	Of him.
• •	·····				····· .		Hũ-n	5-еу .			٠	Hū-ni-o		28.	His.
Na-hyā, yā-	ti or a	yā-hy <b>ā</b>	. Ayatti	or ysi	ai.		. Hū-n	-kē-ya	•			Hū-ni-chē .		29.	They.
,	•••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••				•••••		Hū-nė	-kē-lā		•		Mai osa P		30.	Of them.
	•••••						Hū-nē	-kē-ya	•	•		, fear any		31.	Their.
Kut .	•	•	, Ma-kut	h .		•	. Kiuk	·	•			A-kt		32.	Hand.
Khon or kho		•	. Ma-kho	•	•	••	. Khē-a	• • .			•	A-kō(k)		33.	Foot,
Nhut-to	•	•		••	••••		Natrā	• .	•	•	$\cdot  $	***		34.	Nose.
A-mi,	•	•	. Mik	•	•	•	. Mei	•	•	•	$\cdot  $	Å-mi(k)	٠	35.	Eye.
Wâ-kho.	•	•	. Ma-han	kho.	•	•	. Lebao	• .	•	•	•	Labaung	•	36.	Mouth.
A-ho .	•	•	. Ma-ho.		•	•	. Ho	•	•	•	$\cdot$	Hå	•	37.	Tooth.
A-nhō .	•	•	. Ma-nho	•	•	•	. Kannt	•	•	•	•	Kānnau		38.	Ear.
A-'sân .	•	•	. Shom	•	•	•	. Tsām	• • •		•	•	Chām		39.	Hair.
\.lā ,	•	•	. Mạ-lu	•	•	•	. Lū	•	•	•	•	A-lū	. •	40.	Head.
⊾mlē-bâ.	•	•	Ma-le-bo	ng	•	•	. Pa-lai	•	•	•	-	*** ***		41.	Tongue.
řík .	•	•			***		Та-уа	•	•	•	•	(Ku-yow)		42.	Belly.
-lhing .	•	•	Ma-lhing		•	•	Ning-t	nān	•	•		Ning-thon	•	43.	Back.
l'thi .	:	•	Nthi or t	hi	•	•	Tammi	i .	•	•	•	Ta-man	•	44,	Iron.
[a ,	•	•	На	•	•		Mākā	•	•	•	$\cdot  $	*** ***		<b>4</b> 5.	Gold.
lēn	•	•	Heam	•	•		Tānkā	•	•	•	•	+44 +44		46.	Silver.
-pō .	•	•	A-po	•	•		Nā-āi	•	•	•		Ng*-ā-ī	•	47.	Father.
-nü .	•		Ą-nű		•		Nēh	•	•		.   1	Nga-au-i		48.	Mother.
-tū (elder), er).	a-nau	(young-	er).	er), Ą	-nau	(you <b>n</b> g-		•	•			****		49.	Brother.
-nű-bi .	•		Ą-si	•	•	•	Tai-cha		•	•		(Toi-cho)	•	50. i	Sister.
-kblaung	•		Khlaung	,	•	•	Năm-cl		•			Noung-bā-chiāā .			Man.
a-tho .	•	•	Nha-to	•	•	• •	Nămpă		•		2	Noung-bū-cha (or r pui).	iong-	52.	Woman.

English.	Taungtha (W. B. Tydd).	Chinbōk (W. B. Tydd).	Yawdwin (A. Ross).	Shö (Chittagong Hill Tracts).
3. Wife • • •	υ	Chu · · ·	Kük-kharu	Mata
4. Child	. A-tē · · ·	Anghâ-za · · ·	A-mo- <u>th</u> a	Cha
5. Son	. Tha (Burmese)	Ka-zat-pa-mi	Ka-tha	Pata cha
56. Daughter • •	. Tha-mi (Burmese)	Ka-zat-ngu-mi	No-mi sa	Mata cha
57. Slave	Shin · · ·	•	Akkrang	. Ma
58. Cultivator	Khu-bi-khan	Ukrangnik · · ·	Raiksi	. Läi-tan-di
59. Shepherd		21, 111	*****	Mā-keong-di
60. God	, ,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	Ku · ·	. Khu · ·	Nanakka .
61. Devil		Umoha	. Khārum	Bhūt · · ·
62. Sun			Khâ-ni . · ·	. Kha-ni
63. Moon	Kha	· Cha · · ·	Khā.	Khra
64. Star	. A-chi	Ek'serr	. I-ahi	
65. Fire • • •	. A-rhim	Shran it s'ni	Rhaingai	Mhēi · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
66. Water	Tui	Tui · ·	Tai	Im
67. House	. Im	· Im · ·	Im, pyu, rein	Shā
68. Horse	Se · · ·	Se · ·	Lhā	Sheil .
69. Cow	. Som-mat	Pan-nu	Puk-nu	. Ui .
70. Dog	. U-ur	Uwi	Myin	Min
71. Cat	Min	Min	I-rhwi	Alipha
72. Cock	At-rhwi	. Ai-lhur		Bompai .
73. Duck		**************************************		Bēgān
74. Ass	***************************************	490.00	*****	Üt
75. Camer	Wa	. Kha	Khi	. Ha
77. Go	Thip-yap	Seto	Thit	. Chēt-āl .
78. Eat	That	. Ik (to eat)	Ka-e, 5-nak	. A-5i
79. Sit	Nwan .	. Ngo	Ka-ngank-khai	Om

Shö (Houghton).	Shō (Fryer).	Khami (Chittagong Hill Tracts).	Khami (Latter and Campbell).	English.
na-yā · · ·	Paya	Āyū		53. Wife.
Sa-mi	So or sha-mi	Dung-di	Doung-di	54. Child.
S5	•••••	Năm-chũ chũ	Chi-po . · · ·	55. Son.
Sō-nü .	. A-20	Nām-pāi chā · · ·	Chi-nü .	56. Daughter.
Myā · ·		Mi-chāo .	(Mu-shong)	. 57. Slave.
******	424***	Le-thana .	(Lha-wo) · ·	. 58. Cultivator.
*****		Mē-cy-thanā		59. Shepherd.
Lhi · · ·	320 000	Tām-mue · ·	. Ka-ni-ya-long .	. 60. God.
*****	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	Shey-chi · ·	. (Na) · · ·	. 61. Devil.
Kho-ni . · ·	Ka-nhi	. Kinni	. Ka-ni · · ·	. 62. Sun.
Khlō	. Khlo	. Loh	. Lau	. 63. Moon.
Ā-'sī	Ä-she	Karsi	. Katshi	64. Star.
	. Men	. Māi	. Mäi	65. Fire.
Me · ·	. Tui	Ti	. Tai · · ·	. 66. Water-
Tui · ·	Iam	. Im	. Om · ·	. 67. House.
In	Hē .	. Kang-nga · ·	. Kaung-ngau	68. Horse.
Si or she	. Sho	. Shi-ra	. Chi-nü . · ·	. 69. Cow.
'Så	17:	. Ūi · · ·	. Ūi · · ·	. 70. Dog.
Ui · ·	. Min or mim-zam	. Min-yāng	. Mi-yaung	71. Cat.
Min-zān · ·		Ã-lū	. Ās-lū-hi	72. Cook.
A-lh <del>t</del> i · · ·	Ā-lhui · ·	Rām-pā		73. Duck.
Bē	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	Kang-nga		74. Ass.
900 001	,	200 -00	*****	75. Camel.
40.000		. Ta-wa	Та-wō	76. Bird.
Phayo	Payo	Takko ,	Che(k)	77. Go.
Sit-we · ·	Sit-e	Kēn .	(Cho) · ·	78. Eat.
Ē-we · ·	Ē-e · ·	Të .		79. Sit.
Kho-we .	On-e			, KC. G.—3

English.	Taungtha (W. B. Ţydd).	Chindôk (W. B. Tydd).	Yawdwin (A. Ross).	Shō (Chittagong Hill Tracts).	
. Come	. Kong-khi	Lao-u · · · ·	Lâ-pyi	Kāi	$\cdot  $
. Beat	. Vup	Ma-vi-i · ·	*** 688	Mal · · .	
. Stand	. Thâ	Un-di-wi	Dilao-ki	Yā	
3, <b>D</b> ie	. A-shi	. Suksni	Shë-khai	Dā	
4. Give			640	Pěk	•
5. Run	Thwon	. Tâng	Taungsi	Chan	•
6. Up				Alung	•
37. Near	. A-nitha	. Ayok	. Ungsit	. Āo-cha	•
8. Down		*****	•••	Nēm-ja	
9. Far	A-rhur · · ·	Chok · ·	. Aksa	Ā-lam-lha	
90. Before	. Lamma	. Ма	. På-hei-pa	Äyung	
91. Behind	. Hu	Ngu-ya	. Ka-mhwet-ka	Nungang	
92. Who	•	411.00	7110 **	Nungwong · · ·	
93. What	•		******	Youm	
94. Why		<b>\$</b> 10.010		I-kē-wom	
95. And	******	***	en+ +01	Kei-lā-nung	
96. But	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	*****	******	Äbātā-ko-chey	
97. If	900 000		,,,,,,	Nung-chē-ti-chey .	
98. Yes	****	*****	******	Ae ,	
99. No	a	490 101	p., 1+44	Yā	
100. Alas	•	100.00		σ	
101. A father		110-101	*****	På ngat	
102. Of a father .	410000		*****	På ngat khēo	
103. To a father .		******	401 184	På ngat chong-å .	
104. From a father		\$1	***	På ngat cheng-ä	
105. Two fathers		8 Dá ++4	******	Pû pai-ni	
106. Fathers			*****	På nung	

in-e	Lo-e	Ya	You(k)	
	A-deng-e			80. Come.
ün-e		Phākā	(Pukkow)	81. Beat.
	******	Ung-da	(Un-doh) ,	82. Stand.
rii-we	Dü-e	Deik	Do(k) or dawi	83. Die,
ek-e	Pek-e	Pāi	Pē	84. Give.
ân-e	Son-e	Um-pring		85. Run.
St	******	Itling	(Hū-ling-bang)	86. Up.
en	. A-seng-u	. Kēssā	Teo or (kung-sha)	87. Near,
	***	Tlai-bāngā		88. Down.
ihō	Liho	. Pha-lo	. (Kum-lo-wa)	89. Far.
dhân-gân, ayang-gyi-gyi	Mhon-gon	. Mo-bāngā	. Mon-5	90. Before.
Nhüklân		Nin-thün-bängä .	. Ning-thon	91. Behind.
Ani , · ·	Ani	Āmi-mo	. (Mi-mo)	92. Who.
Baung	Baung or pi	Āti-mo	. (A-ti-mo)	93. What
Pa-kha-tinü		Ātia-mo	•••••	94. Why.
Nü . · ·		900 930	(Wai)	95. And.
Na-khan-bā-sina-hå .		Hū-nāi dung khūa	. (Nu-hai)	. 96. But.
Nā (mfix) · ·	. A-na, di-na (suffixes)	Hā-nāi-bā-lo .		97. If.
Si-yü or si-bā	. Ö-ö or shi-ba	Nēi	, (Nain)	. 98, Yes,
Si-nu · ·	. Nshi nu	. Na-0		99. No.
por ere		Ah	,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	100. Alas.
A-ps · · ·	. Д-ро	. Ngā-āi leong-rē	. (Ai ha-rē)	, 101. A father.
А-ро	. Д-ро	. Ngā-āi leong-rē ilāo .	,	102. Of a father.
A-pō-wā · · ·	. ф-ро-ā · · ·	Ngā-āi khe-o .		103. To a father.
A-pō-gti	. A-po agu	. Ampā leong khe-o .		104. From a father.
A-po pa-nhi	. A-po pun-nhi	. Āmpā leong-nār	. Ngª-āi laung-nü ,	· 105. Two fathers.
A-po hyâ	. A-po hio	. Ām-pā nā	. Nga-si chi (or ai umpo)	. 196. Fathers.

English.	Taungtha (W. B. Tydd).	Chinbök (W. B. Tydd).	Yawdwin (A. Ross).	Shö (Chittagong Hill Tracte).
7. Of fathers			*****	På nung
	4	••••		På nung cheng-å .
8. To fathers	'		***	På nung tha
9. From fathers		^	******	Chūnnū ngat
O. A daughter · ·		301.005		Chunu ngat tha .
11. Of a daughter • •			*****	Chunnu chenga .
12. To a daughter .			******	Chunnu ngat tha .
13. From a daughter				Chūnnū pāi-mi (sic)
14. Two daughters .			*****	Chānnā nūng
115. Daughters				Chûnnű-ti kheo .
116. Of daughters .			****	******
117. To daughters .		•••••		Chūnnū-ti tha
118. From daughters		*****	,	Khrong pai ngat
119. A good man .	•		,	Khrong pai kheo
120. Of a good man .	•		****	Khrong pai cheng-ā.
121. To a good man .	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	qu. 100	*****	
122. From a good man		******	\$10.00	Khrong pai tha
123. Two good men .	,,,,,,,	******		Khrong pai pâ-chok-ni
124. Good men .			•••••	Khrong pai nung
125. Of good men .		889	*** ***	Khrong pai nung-cha k
126. To good men .		- 400.10		Khrong pai nung chen
127. From good men		*****	•••••	Khrong pai nung tha
128. A good woman .	Nura a-shin	Ngu-mi nik	. Lami tumat kaum shi	. Mata ngat pai
129. A bad boy .	. Khan shippa (a bad	man) . Chan ak-nit (a bad man)	Krang shi tumat (	a bad Tsā-mi-cha pai-ā .
130. Good women .	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	*****		Mata pai nung .
131. A bad girl		******	Ambean (bad)	Matacha pai-ā
132. Good .	. Asbin	. Nik	Abean	Pai ·
133. Better .	Tha ga-shin	Akvai-nik	. Ada abean .	Pai tëi

Shö (Houghton).	Shö (Fryer),	Khawi (Chittsgong Hili Tracts).	Khami (Latter and Campbell).	. Inclair
-pō hyā	A-po hio	Am-pā nāi-nā lē-o	440 741	197. Oz fichijs.
-pō hyâ-wā	A-po hio-â	Ām-pā nā	******	, 19 <b>8. T</b> o lichers. ••
-pō hyâ-gu	A-po hio agu	Ām-pū nai-nā khō-o .      ,	*** 100	, 159. From fathers.
55-nü		Kinnū leong-26	*****	110. A disigliter.
o-nü	*****	Kinnā leong-rē lē-o	•••••	111. Of a daughter.
Sō-nü-wā	*****	Kinnū leong-rē	*****	112. To a danginer.
Sō-nü-gü		Kinnū leong-rē khē-o .	*****	113. From a daughter.
So-nü pa-nhi		Kinnū leong-nū-rē	Chi-nü laung-nü	114. Two daugaters.
Sō-nữ hyâ	*******	Kinnā nā	•••••	115. Daughters.
Sō-nü hyâ		Kinnū nai-nā lē-o	*****	116. Of daughters.
Sō-nü hyâ-wā .		Kinnū nai-nā	*****	117. To daughters.
Sō-nü hyâ-gü .		Kinnū nai-nā khē-o .	*****	118. From daughters.
-khlaung bhoi .	. Khlaung aphoi .	. Khaimi hoy-nā leong-rē	(Khu-mi hoi)	. 119. A good man.
-khlaung bhoi .	•	Khaimi hoy-nā lēo .	111000	120. Of a good man.
A-khlaung bhoi-yā .		Khaimi hoy-nā leong-rē		121. To a good man.
-khlaung bhoi-gü .		Khaimi hoy-nā khē-o		122. From a good man.
A-khlaung bhoi pa-nhi	· qquad	Khai-mi hoy-nū leong-nū	. (Long-nu-re hoi) .	. 123. Two good men.
A-khlaung bhoi hyâ		Khaimi baiba tlong-hoy kë	(Khu-mi hoi)	. 124. Good men.
A-khlaung bhoi hyâ		Khaimi koy-nā lēo .		125. Of good men.
<u>A-khlaung</u> bhoi hy <b>â</b> -wû		Khaimi hoy-nā ya .		126. To good men.
A-khlaung bhoi hyâ-gü		Khaimi hoy-nā khēso		127. From good men.
Natho bhoi	. Nhato aphoi	. Num-pui hoy-nu leong-re	. (Nong-pui hoi) .	. 128. A good weman.
'Sami po 'si		Dung-di leong-rē hoy-ē-n leong-rē.	a	129. A bad boy.
Natho bhoi hyâ .		Nām-pāi hoy-nā nai	. (Nong-pui hoi) .	. 130. Good women.
Hâ-uü 'sì · ·		Nūm-pūi chu hoy-ō-n leong-rō.	ā	131. A bad girl.
A-bhoi • • •	. A-phoi or abhoi .	. Hoy-nā	. A-hani	. 132. Good.
Phoi-hēk • •	. San aphoi • .	. lloy	. (Noi-hoi)	. 133. Better.

English.	Taungtha (W. B. Tydd).	Chinbôk (W. B. Tydd).	Yawdwin (A. Ross).	Shö (Chittagong Hill Tracts).
34. Best	A-shin-rhe	Ak-nīk-pyi	Ada abean	. A-thaka pai-tēi
35. High	A-kan	Āk-thun · · ·	Uksu	. Ā-ling
36. Higher · · ·	*** **	40 110		Ā-ling tha ā-ling
37. Highest				Ai-tha ā-ling
38. A horse		,,,,,,,		Shē ngat
139. A mare				Shē-nā ngat
				Shō nũng
140. Horses		.,,,,,		Shè-nữ nững
141. Mares		. Se-pat	Khan-do	. Shēl-ci ngat
142. A bull	Som sat	Pan-nu	Puk-nu	. Shël-në ngat
143. A cow	· Som nu . · ·			Shel nung
144. Bulls	• 100.000	****	.,	Shël-në nëng
145. Cows	•		••••	Üi ngat
146. A dog		•••••		Űi-nü ngat
147. A bitch		*****	•••	Üi näng .
146. Dogs	• ••••	110 100	*****	Üi-nā nāng .
149. Bitches	141,00	******	. Mai (a goat)	Mā-hō ngat
150. A he goat	· Mē (a goat) · ·	. Mè (a goat) · ·		Mā-nā ngat
151. A female goat .		140 ***		Mā-hō nũng
152. Goats		.,	,	Sakhi-hēo ngat
153. A male deer .		•••••	••••	Sakhi-nā ngat
154. A female deer .	•	******	•••••	Sakhi-hōo náng
155. Deer	• Thamin	. Kyiran		Kheko ka tan-ēi
156. I am		******		
157. Thou art		*****		
158. He is	`. ess '**			Ayū mai
159, We are		*****	, »**	Khē-ni mai
160. You are		•••••	•••••	Bri ti o (sic) · ·

Shö (Houghton).	Shō (Fryer).	Khami ("Lift (geng Hill Tracts). III and Lat'	raal Crayfell - erden	
A-bhoi-hek or a-bhoi-' sün .	Aphoi-hek	Hoy-têp	) 101, 2015	***
Lhüng	A-lhüng	Ā chāng (A-shiang)		
Lhüng-hēk	San a-lhüng	Hu-ni tlang-wa ā-chāngkē. (Hr tlong	n-shim g) 13°. High.r.	
Lhüng-hēk	. A-lhüng-hek	A-chāng-tēp (Hū ashian	g-bē) 187. Highest.	
Si-nsa		Keong-o hā-rē Kounggnat	1 pt-ting 188. A borse.	
Si-nü	. He-nữ	Keong-o-nū hā-rē Kounggnat	2-nü . 139. A mam,	
Si-nsa hyâ		Keong-o nā (Kong-o b	ang) 140. Horses.	
Si-nü hyâ	•	Keong-o-nữ nã	141. Marcs.	
'Sâ-thi	. Sho-thi	. Shira pātāi Chie pa-tir	ng 142. A ball.	
'Sâ-nü	Sho-nü	Shira-nū hā-rē	. 143. A cow.	
'Sâ-thi hyâ		Shira pātāi nā (Nā bang)	144. Bulls.	
'Sâ-nü hyâ		Shira-nữ nã (Nữ bang)	) 145. Cows.	
Ui-hān . · ·	. Ui-han	. Üi-lo hā Üi-loh	146. A dog.	
Ui-nü · · ·	. Ui-nü	. Ūi-nū bā Ūi-nū	147. A bitch.	
Ui-hān hyâ		Ŭi-lo nă	148. Dogs	
Ui-nü hyå		Ūi-nū nā	149. Bitches.	
A-mi-nsa		Mē-hō pātāi hā-rē (Me-e)	150. A he goat.	
A-mi-nü		Mē-nā hā-rē (Me-e nā	) 151. A female guat.	
A-mi hyâ		Mē-hē pātāi nā (Me-e ba	ng) 152. Geats.	
'Satgyī-nsa		Chikhi pātāi hā-rē (Ta-kī)	153. A male deer.	
'Satgyi-nü		Chikhi-nū hā-rē (Ta-ki n		
'Satgyi hyâ		Chikhi nā (Ta-ki b		
Kyē ka tân-ē-yü	. Kie ką-moi-u	. Kāi tē Kai au (	or kai om) 156. I am.	
Naung na moi-yū	Naun na-moi-u	. Nung dung-di ta (Nang d	om) 157. Thou sat.	
Ayā moi-yü	. Aya na-moi-u	. Hūmi teo (Hū om		
Куё-те та тоі-уй	. Kic-me ma moi-u .	. Kūi-chē	e om) 159. We are.	
Naung-me ma moi-yü	. Naun-me ma-moi-u .	. Nung-kē dung-di tē (Nang-	che om) 160. You are.	
			KC. G	371

English.	Taungtha (W. B. Tydd).	Chindők (W. B. Tydd).	Yawdwin (A. Ross).	Shö (Chittagong Hill Tracts).			
61. They are	,,,,,			A-khal mai			
62. I was	•••••	*****	•••	Kē ka mai			
63. Thou wast	*****		*****	Nung-ni ni mai			
64. He was	,,,,,,,,			Enghāt mai			
65. We were	*****	••	*** ***	Kēi-ni khini mai			
66. You were · · ·	,,,,,,,,	pag vri	041400	Nung nya mai			
67. They were	,	••••		A-khal ā mai			
68. Be • · ·		******	*****	Ta nei (i.e. thûn-ē)			
69. To be	,	******	,,,,,,	Ta nei na (i.e. thân-ē-nā) .			
<b>***</b> *********************************		******		Ta'nei (i.e. thân-ō)			
		******	40	Ta nei nāhā (i.e. thânē-nā- hā).			
190 T . L			100 500	Khe ke tanë-ai			
173. I shall be .	******	******		Khe ke ta			
174. I should be		0.0.00					
175. Beat		\$40 tof		Mal · · ·			
176. To beat	921146		*****	Mal-ōi-shâ · ·			
177. Beating		àm		Mal-nā			
178. Having beaten .		******	******	Mal-dek-shâ • •			
179. I beat			***	Khe ke mal-ai-shå .			
180. Thou beatest .			•••••	Nung ni mal			
181. He beats .		100101	,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	Ai-la mal-shû			
182. We beat			*****	Kēi-ni mal			
183. You beat		401,000		Nungni mal			
184. They beat .		*** 180	111 000	A-kalā (sic) mal .			
185. I beat (Past Tense			***	pa, 041			
186. Thou beatest (			••••	. 000419			
Tense). 187. He beat (Past Ten		45*,+**	,,				

Shö (Houghton).		Shö (Fryer).	Khami (Chittagong Hill Tracts).	Khami (Latter and Campbell .	Ergüsh.
Na-hyâ moi-yü .		Ayati ma-moi-u	Ni-chē tē	(Hū-ni-che om)	181. They are.
Kyē ka moi-ni-ü .		Kie ka moi-ni-u	Kāia	******	102. I was.
Naung na moi-ni-ü .	. 1	Naun na moi-ni-u	Dung-di chi-om		163. Theu wast.
Ayā moi-ni-ü		Aya na moi-ni-u	Hūnni om	(Hū-nai kache-boh)	164. He was.
Σyē-me ma moi-ni-ü		Kye-me ma moi-ni-u .	Kāi-chē om	(Kai-che kache-boh) .	165. We were.
Naung-me ma moi-ni-ü		Naun-me ma moi-ni-u .	Dung-di nung-kē om .	(Nang-che kache-boh) .	106. You were.
Na-hyâ moi-ni-ü .		Yati hio na moi-ni-u .	Hū-ni-chē om	(Hūni-che kache-b.h) .	1 167. They were.
Tân-e		Моі-е	Nāi-mi		103. Be.
*** ***		Moi-ei	Nāi-ba	(Om)	100. To be.
<b>443 ***</b>		Moi agu	Nāi-vāng-mi		170. Being.
<b>010 111</b>		189 ***	401448		171. Having been.
, 981 864		\$80 e 591	Kāi tē-o-mi	•••••	172. I may be.
Kyē ka moi-aih		Kye ka moi-ei	Kāi tē-o-mi		173. I shall be.
***		101 200		*****	174. I should be.
Deng-e		Deng-e	Pākhā	. (Pakkau)	175. Beat./
<b>600 ···</b>		Deng-ei	Pākhā-wā	. (Pakkan-che)	176. To beat.
Deng-tü or deng-nā .		Deng gu	Pākhā	. (Pakkau boh)	177. Beating.
Deng-pana		*****	Ung-pākhā	. (Pakkau bon)	178. Having beaten.
Kyê ka deng-ü		Kye ka deng-u	Kāi pākhā kinnū .		179. I beat.
Naung na deng-ü		Naun na deng-u	Dung-di pākhā		180. Thou beatest.
Ayā deng-ü		Aya na deng-u	Hūnni pākhā .		181. He bears.
Kyē-me ma deng-ü		Kyē-me ma deng-u	. Kāi-chē pākhā		182. We beat.
Naung-me ma deng-ü	•	Naun me ma deng-u .	. Dung-di pākhā .		183. You beat.
Na-hyâ deng-ü		Ayati ma deng-u	. Ni-chē pākhā		184. They beat.
Kyê ka deng-ni-ü		Kye ka deng-ni-u		******	185. I beat (Past Tense).
Naung na deng-ni-ü .		Naun na deng-ni-u		*****	186. Thou beatest (Pa
Aya deng-ni-it		Aya na deng ni-u		·····	187. He beat (Past Tense)
					KC. G.—373

English.	Taungtha (W. B. Tydd).	Chinbök (W. B. Tyde).	Yaudwin (A. Ress).	Shö (Chittagong Hill Tracts).
88. We beat (Past Tense).			*** **	
89/You beat (Past Tense)			•••••	
90. They beat (Past Tense)			10****	
91. I am beating · ·	******		******	Kho ke mal
192. I was beating	040 050			Khe ke mal hia-a
193. I had beaten	ine eau	*****	****	Khe ke mal
194. I may beat	910.100	•••••	•••••	Khe ke mal-nung .
195. I shall beat		*****	Ka låk-kö (I shall come) .	Khe ke mal-āi
196. Thou wilt beat	*****	bon one	*****	
197. He will beat		A-ni lâk-khi (he will come)	•••••	
198. We shall beat	come).	***	** ***	
199. You will beat .			••••	
200. They will beat .		.05.00		*****
201. I should beat .		****	*****	Kho ke būp-ai-shâ .
202. I am beaten .		146		Khe mal khe ke më (sic)
203. I was beaten .			140 910	Yā khō mal khō mē (sic)
204. I shall be beaten		611488	******	Khel mal kham-ei-shâ
205. I go		100 000	*****	Khe ke chet-āi
206. Thou goest		** ***	19111	Nung chet-cha .
207. He goes	***	190 469	****	Ai chet-cha
208. We go		,,,,,	80A +1 +	****
209. You go				******
210. They go	03-***	53.000	*****	*****
211. I went	*******	400 011	181350	Khe ke chet-cha .
212. Thou wentest .		F00 A4A	e a c 194	Nung aiyung ngō chet
218. He went		*** 606	******	Ai chet
214. We went		****		*****

Sho (Houghton).	Shö (Fryer).	Khami (Chittagong Hill Tracts).	Khami (Latter and Campbell).	Egdsh.
Kyē-me ma deng-ni-ü	Kie-me ma deng-ni-u .	*** ***	941 011	188. We leat (Past Tenne).
Naung-me ma deng-ni-ü .	Naun-me ma deng-ni-u .	******	*** ***	189. You had (Past Tence)
Na-hyâ deng-ni-u	Yati hio na deng-ni-n .	*****	*****	190. They beat (Past Tense)
Kyō deng-nā ka ân-ü .	*****	Kāi baimo	•••••	191. I am beating
******	c to c + 244	Kai yang-ni-o pākhā	•••••	192. I was beating.
Kyō ka deng-pheng-ni-ü .	***104	Yāng-ni pā-khā kāi	•••••	193. I had beaten.
b41.965	*******	Kai pā-khā pai-yā	(Kāi pakkau-pi-yau)	194. I may beat.
Kyē ka deng-aiḥ	Kie ką deng-ci	Kāi pā-khā kinnā	(Kāi pakkau neuh) .	195. I shall beat.
Naung na deng-aih	Naun nạ deng-ei		•••••	196. Thou wilt beat.
Ayā deng-aiḥ	Aya na deug-ei		******	197. He will beau
Kyē-me ma deng-aiḥ .	Kye-me ma deng-ei			198. We shall beat.
Naung-me ma deng-aih .	Naun-me ma deng-ei .	19	*****	199. You will beat.
Na-hyâ deng-aiḥ	Yati hio na deng-ei	120.000	*****	200. They will bent.
*** 100	##* PA\$	Kāi pā-khā-wā	******	201. I should beat.
A-deng ka khân-ü	Kie deng ka-sun-ey-u .	Kāi ām-khā ka khām .	(Kai pakkau)	202. I am beaten.
A-deng ka khân-nî-ũ .	******	Ām-khā bom-bom kāi khām	(Kai pakkau)	203. I was beaten.
A-deng ka khân-aiḥ	*****	Pā-khā ām-tē kinnū	•••	204. I shall be beaten.
Kyē ka sit-ū	Kie ką siż-yu	Kāi tākkā bau	Kai che(k)	. 205. I go.
Naung na sit-ü	Naun na sit-yu	Dung-di tākkū	Nān che(k)	206. Thou goest.
Ayā sīt-ü	Aya na sit-yu	Ni tākkā bau	Ni che(k)	207. He goes.
Kyē-me ma sit-u	Kye-me ma sit-yu	*****	*****	208. We go.
Naung-me ma sit-ü	Naun-me ma sit-yu .	******	*****	209. You go.
Na-hyâ sit-ü	Yati hio na sit-yu	****	•	210. They go.
Kyē ka sit-ni-ü	Kye ką sit-ni-u	Kāi tākkā bau	Kai che(k) bau(k) .	. 211. I went.
Naung na sit-ni-ü	Naun na sit-ni-u	Dung-di tākkū bau .	Nān che(k) bau(k) .	. 212. Thou wentest.
Ayā sit-ni-ü	Aya na sit-ni-u .	Ni bai bau	Ni che(k) bau(k) .	. 213. He went,
Kyō-me ma sit-ni-ü .	Kie-me ma sit-ni-u	******		214. We went.

English.	Taungtha (W. B. Tydd).	Chinbök (W. B. Tydd),	Yawdwin (A. Ross).	Shö (Chittagong Hill Tracts).
15. You went		947 -0.	******	*****
16. They went	·		••••••	*****
17. Go	,, es.	Seto · · ·	*****	Che
18. Going · · ·	40	Nee gja	•••••	Chetū lachē
119. Gone	******	<b></b>	<b>***</b> ***	Chetcha
220. What is your name?.	Nun a-mein ta-burr-yë ?	Ngan min annyan?	Nanut na-nīn ü yan ? .	Nung mi ya?.
221. How old is this horse?	He myin-sa myit t' om?	She num-se kun a-i-iksu lauk syan.	Akum i-ku-âp si-yan ? .	Ni chey eya achak ma dākā?
222. How far is it from here to Kashmir?	(Kashmir) mittå a-rhu-yë ?	(Kashmir) i-rut chok syan?	Î swê hang sak si-yan? .	Ni thak Kashmir prē ya lam la ?
223. How many sons are there in your father's			*****	Pâ im-ā cha pachun ya-mai-om?
house? 224. I have walked a long way to-day.	İ			Lhām lo-a kācha nēi (per haps kā-chet-ni-ü, I hav gone).
225. The son of my uncle i				Pũ chũ-nũ ka-nak (sio)
226. In the house is the sa dle of the white hor		*** ***		Shē bak kong āniton shagin mai.
227. Put the saddle upo	n	991 207	******	Shō nū-ung ānitong .
228. I have beaten his so with many stripes.				Ai cha-ni nānā ka mal
229, He is grazing cattle of the top of the hill.	on	,,,		Ai ni chak pekā ka keong
230. He is sitting on a ho under that tree.			***	Ai ni thin chaba she pt ngung.
231. His brother is tall		*****	******	A-be tha ka kling .
232. The price of that is rupees and a half.				Ai mān lām ni gal khai
233. My father lives in the small house.		*** **	B31: ***	På im lök cha ä mai
234. Give this rupes to b	im	***	,,,,,,	Ne tani ay-ü pök .
235. Tak. those rupees fr him.		·····	175. 97	Ai lūm ni ai-ta la-wē lo-wē).
236. Beat him well and him with ropes.	ind		141 87	Nānā mal yā-yan kūn
237. Draw water from well.	the		******	Wũ mata tũi khai .
238. Walk before me			(1 191	Kei mai ma chet-ēi .
239. Whose boy comes hind you?	be-		, 61 ***	Khe kan u cham (sic)?
240. From whom did buy that?	you	4		Ni wan ni u tha ā lē ya
241. From a shopkeeper the village.	r of	·	181111	Nhum sui khā lö-cy.

	Shö (Houghton).	Shō (Fryer).	Khami (Chittafong Hill Tracts .	Khami (Latter and Campbell).	Erglisi.
Nau	ng-me ma sit-ni-u .	Naun-me ma sit-ni-u	****		215. You went
Na-h	<b>y</b> â sit-ni-ü	Yati hio na sit-ni-u		4*****	216. They went.
Sit-e		Sid-e	Tākkā	(Takko)	217. Go.
Sit-t	i	Sit-gu	Tākkū wāi	(Takko)	218. Going.
Sit-k	ŭ	*****	Tākkā bau	(We-boh)	219. Gone.
	*****	******	Nung-ē ung-mue āmi-mo?	Nãn a-mún (mî-mo)?	220. What is your name?
		*****	Hinnā chinai mā-yē-rē om-mo?	(Hī kong-o shinnee ma-ye-re omoh?)	221. How old is this horse?
	*** 04*	*****	Hi inna Kashmir prē pa-lo-mo?	800.444	222. How far is it from here to Kashmir?
	*****	*****	Nang po-ë immo kep-po leong ma-yë-rë om-mo?	(Um-po imma chī-po ma-ye- re om-oh ?)	223. How many sons are there in your father's house?
	••• •••	****	Wāi-ni kāi kām-lo chwei .	(Wai-ni pul-lo pai kai pu- wai.)	224. I have walked a long way to-day.
	48+ +++	44+ 44	Kāi ām-prā chinnū kāi lā .	(Kai mu-prang) chi-po (a- yū la hū-ni-e toi-cho).	225. The son of my uncle is married to his sister.
	J++ 990	984 944	Hā-ni immo kung-leong keong-o gin o om.	110 000	226. In the house is the sad- dle of the white horse.
	*** ***	401000	Hū-ni gin keong-o tlang- tlang-o khải.	******	227. Put the saddle upon his back.
	•••••	201989	Hū-ni dung-di-o pā-khū-nā- nung.	(Hū-ni-e) chi-po (kai pakkan-nung-nung).	228. I have beaten his son with many stripes.
	994 (11)	441.050	Hā-ni-o pichha nā ta ta nā .	******	229. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.
	501 ***	******	Hā-ni ling-keong pakhing-o keong-o tlang-tlang-o ung-te.	(Hū-ni ung-te kong tlunga hū ding-keng akūya.)	230. He is sitting on a horse under that tree.
	994 000	991	Hā-ni tai-cho tleong-o ā- cheang.	*** ***	231. His brother is taller than his sister.
	•••••	10	Hunni-ē vāng tlāp nu-re ba-khai.	(Hū-ni-ē wang tlap nu-rē adulli om.)	rupees and a half.
	400 00	•••••	Kai am-pa hu-ni im-cho-o om.	100000	233. My father lives in that small house.
	*** ***	161.664	Hunni tänkä who-o (i.e., hū-o) pey.	900344	234. Give this rupee to him.
	000 120	******	Hu-ni tău-kā who-o (i.e., hū-o) lo.	402710	235. Take those rupees from him.
	*** ***	1.4444	Hū-ni-u pākhā-bom-bom kābui hoy kom-chūn.	*****	236. Best him well and bind him with ropes.
	493.004	<b>*** ***</b>	Kho-ē tūi khū-būi hoy ā-tēo	(V.i. a ma me dalla)	237. Draw water from the well. 238. Walk before me.
	*** ***	*** ***	Kāi-ē mo-o tākko	(Kai-e mo-wa takko) .	
	***	os; ***	Nung-ë ning-thë-o ami mo ung-hui?	*** **	239. Whose boy comes be- kind you?
	401992	*** ***	Ami khi ommo van ?  Ayan takku chai-o yan	•••••	240. From whom did you buy that?  241. From a shopkeeper of
	444 10**	401.400	ATOM CONN. CHOICO YOU .	******	the village.

## BURMA GROUP.

#### GENERAL INTRODUCTION.

The Linguistic Survey does not extend to Burma or to the languages spoken in that province. A Burmese dialect, known as Maghi, is spoken in Backergunge and Chittagong. It does not, however, differ from the dialect spoken in Arakan, and it has, therefore, been excluded from the Survey as a language foreign to India proper.<sup>1</sup>

Mrū, a dialect spoken in the Chittagong Hill Tracts, in several points agrees with Burmese, and it has therefore been classed as belonging to the Burma group. The materials which are available for this dialect are, however, so unsatisfactory that its classification can only be provisional. It is based on facts which will be mentioned later on.

Most of the dialects belonging to the Burma group are all but unknown, and only the classical language of the Burmese literature, as it is spoken by educated Burmans, has been made available to philologists. What we know about the various forms of speech which must be classed as Burmese dialects, may be summed up in this place as a supplement to the Linguistic Survey.

Burmese is the chief language of Burma. It is bounded towards the south by Mon and Karen; towards the east by Tai languages; towards the north by Shan and Kachin, and towards the west by various Chin dialects.

The written language seems to be the same throughout, but the local pronunciation varies greatly. Our information about these differences is almost entirely limited to the dialect spoken in Arakan.

The Arakanese have branched off from the main Burmese stock at an early date. They are separated from the Burmese proper by a mountainous tract of country and there has been relatively little intercourse between them. The Arakanese dialect has, therefore, had a development of its own, and, in many respects, differs widely from standard Burmese. The pronunciation often agrees with written as against spoken Burmese. In other respects the phonetical changes are different from those occurring in standard Burmese.

The Arakanese are called Maghs' by the natives of India; the Burmans of Pegu call them Rakhaing-tha, i.e., sons of Rakhaing (Arakan).

The Khyaung-thas, i.e., 'the sons of the river', are settled in Akyab and the Arakan Hill Tracts. They are divided into seven classes, and three of these are said to be descended from Talaings. The dialect spoken by the Khyaung-thas is considered to be a form of Arakanese.

The Yabaings, who are settled on both sides of the Pegu Roma, are said to speak Burmese with a strong Arakanese accent.

The inhabitants of Tavoy consider themselves to be descendants of Arakanese colonists. Their language is said to contain many Arakanese provincialisms.

The numbers returned for Maghi in Backergunge and Chittagong are as follows:—

Backergunge
16,417
Chittagong
Chittagong Hill Tracts
Total
44,561

An account of the principal peculiarities of Maghi will be found in the Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, Vol. lvii, 1903.

A Burmese dialect is spoken in Myelat by the Taungyos, who are settled in Hsa Möng Kham, Maw Nang, and Kyawk Tat.<sup>1</sup>

Mrū has provisionally been classed as belonging to the Burma group. It is spoken

in the Chittagong Hill Tracts and the Arakan Hills.

The numerals mainly agree with those used in Burmese and the Kuki-Chin languages, and Mrū seems to be most akin to these two groups. The two first numerals, however, lo, one, and  $pr\bar{e}$ , two, differ from those occurring in all related languages. We may perhaps compare Palaung  $l\bar{e}$ , one; Xong pra, two.

The numerals in Tibeto-Burman languages are often qualified by means of generic particles. These particles are prefixes in the Kuki-Ohin languages, but suffixes in Burmese. Mrū agrees with this latter form of speech. One of the few generic suffixes which occur in the Mrū specimens is, moreover, identical with the corresponding Burmese suffix.  $Y\bar{a}$ , which is used when the numeral refers to a human being, corresponds to Burmese yauk (Maghī ya), which is used in the same way. Other generic suffixes, which are common to both languages, are perhaps borrowed from Burmese.

The higher numerals are formed in Burmese by prefixing the multiplier to the numeral 'ten', while the multiplier is suffixed in the Kuki-Chin languages. Mrū in this respect agrees with Burmese. Thus,  $ng\bar{a} \cdot kom$ , five-tens, fifty.

There are also some points of resemblance between Mrū and Burmese in the formation and inflection of words.

The prefix a which is used in Burmese in order to form nouns and adjectives is used in the same way in Mrū. Thus,  $\bar{a}$ - $v\bar{a}th$ , a cloth;  $\bar{a}$ - $ch\bar{a}$ , son;  $\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{a}$ , servant;  $\bar{a}$ -sing-oi, safe;  $\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{a}k$ - $m\bar{a}$ , far;  $\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$ -mi, elder, etc.

The male suffixes  $p\bar{a}$  and  $l\bar{a}$  and the female suffix  $m\bar{a}$  in Mru are identical with the corresponding Burmese suffixes pha or pho, la, and ma, respectively. Ma is not used in this way in the Kuki-Chin languages which replace it by the suffix nu.

The suffix ka which is occasionally added in the nominative case in Mrū is probably identical with the Burmese suffix  $k\bar{a}$  which is sometimes added to the nominative, especially in adversative clauses. A suffix koi is sometimes added to the accusative in Mrū. In  $\bar{a}ng$ -go pai, me-to give, the same suffix occurs in the form go. Compare Burmese ko and go.

The suffix khai which is used in the conjugation of the Mrū verb in order to form a kind of past tense is probably related to the Burmese suffix khè, etc.

All these points seem to show that there is a certain connection between Burmese and •Mrū. The materials at our disposal are, however, so extremely corrupt and untrustworthy that it is impossible to classify Mrū with certainty.

Mrū is by no means merely a Burmese dialect and differs from this latter language in essential points. We sometimes find parallel forms and words in other groups such as the Bodo, the Nāgā, and, more especially, the Kuki-Chin languages. The pronoun āng, I, for instance, is found again in the Bodo languages, and en, thou, may be compared with Angāmi na, thou; un, thy, etc. The suffix of the relative participle is mi in Mrū, as in the Lai dialect of Chin, and so on.

The vocabulary is, to a great extent, independent. Many words are found again in the Kuki-Chin languages, especially in Khami. The negative particle doi seems to correspond to Meithei da, etc. But many common words, such as 'belly', 'ear',

The preceding information has been condensed from The British Burma Gazetteer. Rangoon, 1880, and from Gazetteer of Upper Burma and the Shan States. By J. George Scott, assisted by J. P. Hardiman. Bangoon, 1900.

'hand', 'mouth', 'horse', 'cow', etc., must be quite differently translated in Mru and in the Kuki-Chin forms of speech. We sometimes find forms with an old appearance reminding one of Tibetan. Thus, kim, house, Tibetan, khyim; kui, dog, Tibetan khyi, Singphō gui, Burmese khwe. The greatest part of the vocabulary, however, is apparently independent, or corresponding words are found now in one and now in another group of connected languages.

Under such circumstances the classing of Mrū can only be provisional until we get new and better materials. We have found it to agree with Burmese in important points, while also other languages such as Nāgā, Bodo and Kuki-Chin languages sometimes have parallel forms and words.

The Mrū tribe has perhaps branched off from the Burmese branch of the Tibeto-Burman family at a very early date, before the modern groups such as Bodo, Nāgā, Kuki-Chin, etc., had been developed. They were perhaps the forerunners of the great Burmese invasion of Further India. The Arakanese tradition that the Mrūs were settled in Arakan before the Myamma race entered it would agree well with this supposition.

## HYBRID BURMESE LANGUAGES

In Northern and North-Eastern Burma there are a number of tribes whose languages have not yet been thoroughly examined, but all of which appear to be more or less closely connected with Burmese and are probably hybrids. For the sake of completing the survey of the Tibeto-Burman group, I give the following very brief account of these forms of speech, which is entirely based on Messrs. Scott and Hardiman's Gazetteer of Upper Burma.

#### A .- DANU AND KADU.

The Danus live along the border which separates the Shāns from the Burmans. They form a considerable proportion of the population of the Maymyo sub-division of Mandalay, are numerous in the Ruby mines, in Mong Löng, Hsum Hsai, and Western Lawksawk. They are also found in all states in the Myelat, especially in Pangtara, Poila, Yengan, and Maw. They are a hybrid race of Shān and Burmese. Their present speech is a form of Burmese with a great admixture of foreign words. See Gazetteer of Upper Burma, Vol. I, Pt. I, pages 562 and ff.

The Danaws are apparently different from the Danus, and are perhaps originally Taungthus (i.e. Karens). They are found in Pangtara, Kyawk Tat, Lai Hsak, and the surrounding larger states, but are not very numerous.

The Kadus are Burmese and Shān half-breeds with traces of Chin and perhaps Kachin blood. If they had ever a distinct language it is now extinct or has been so much modified by all its neighbours as to be little better than a kind of Yiddish. The Kadus are chiefly found in the Katha district. See Gazetteer of Upper Burma, Vol. I, Pt. I, pages 569 and ff. Vocabulary on pages 691 and ff.

# B.-Hybrids of Kachin and Burmese.

The following languages appear to be hybrids between Kachin and Burmese. Some of them have been already referred to when dealing with the Kachin group, but as they

are all more closely connected with Burmese they are again mentioned here. It is possible that they are not hybrids, but independent forms of speech.

The Asi or Szi are a half-breed branch of the Lepai Kachins, and their head-quarters are in the hills in the neighbourhood of Mogaung. Their language does not seem to be connected with Kachin, but agrees best with those of the other members of the above group. See Gazetteer of Upper Burma, Vol. I, Pt. I, pages 377 and ff. Vocabulary on pages 660 and ff.

The Lashis are much mixed up with the Szis and with them are spread all along the frontier of Burma, north, east, and south-east of Bhamo. See Gazetteer of Upper Burma, Vol. I, Pt. I, page 387. They are a hybrid race, see page 382. Vocabulary on page 660.

The Marus, so far as known territory is concerned, frequent the borderland of Burma and China, particularly to the north-east of Talawgyi, south of the main Lashi settlement, and east of Loi Niu. They are however found south and west of this, as far as Katha. They are believed to have come originally from the north. Their language is closely connected with Szi and Lashi. It is nearer Burmese than Kachin. See Gazetteer of Upper Burma, Vol. I, Pt. I, pages 382 and ff. Vocabulary on pages 661 and ff. Possibly a hybrid race.

The Hpöns are found so far only in the upper defile of the Irrawaddy between Bhamo and Sinbo and just above it in the Mankin valley to the south-east of Sinbo. They have nothing to do with Shāns, but are much more closely connected with Burmese. 'It is possible that they are a mere sort of dishclout, like the Yaws and Danus and Kadus, full of traces of all their neighbours.' See Gazetteer of Upper Burma, Vol. I, Pt. I, pages 566 and ff. Vocabulary on pages 661 and ff.

The Achangs call themselves and are called by their Chinese neighbours Ngachang or Achang. They appear to be called Parans by the Kachins round about. The name Maingtha is a simple Burmese perversion of the Shān form Tai Möng Hsa, that is to say, Shāns from the two Hsa states, Ho Hsa and La Hsa. The Upper Burma Gazetteer also calls them Tarens or Tarengs. The Kachins regard them as being indirectly connected with them. Their dress, religion, and customs are those of the Chinese Shāns. They are found on the west border of the Chinese state of Santa and in Khāmtī Löng. Their language is a curious mixture. Captain H. R. Davies estimates that about thirty per cent of their vocabulary appears to be connected with Burmese, and twelve per cent with Shān. A reference to the published vocabulary shows a close resemblance between the Achang and Lashi numerals and the one pronoun available for comparison. I therefore include Achang in this group. See Gazetteer of Upper Burma, Vol. I, Pt. I, pages 390 and ff., 618 and ff. Vocabulary on page 661 and ff.

## C .- THE LIHSAW SUB-GROUP.

A group of some six languages, of which Lihsaw is the principal, seems to be connected with Burmese. They all seem to be related to each other. They are the following:—

The Lihsaws are found chiefly in the neighbourhood of Sadon and scattered at high altitudes and always in very small villages throughout the Northern Shān States and

Möng Mit. The Kachins call them Yawyin and the Chinese Lihsaw. The language has no resemblance to Kachin, but is practically the same as La'hu. It is possible that, like the La'hus, they are a half-breed race. See Gazetteer of Upper Burma, Vol. I, Pt. I, pages 388 and 587. Vòcabulary on pages 661 and 702.

The La'hus are commonly referred to as the Mu Hsö. The Chinese call them Loheirh or Law'he. They are locally called Myen by the Shāns, while the Wa sometimes called them Kwi, which seems to be really the name of a sub-clan. In the Kēngtūng State there are two main divisions who call themselves La'hu-na and La'hu-hsi, and speak different dialects. The principal seat of the La'hus, so far as known, is in the country north of Möng Lem between the Salween and the Mekhong. There are also colonies of them scattered over Kēngtūng and Kēng Cheng. Their language is practically the same as Lihsaw. See Gazetteer of Upper Burma, Vol. I, Pt. I, pages 576 and ff. Vocabulary of La'hu on pages 670 and ff. Of La'hu-na on pages 697 and ff., and of La'hu-hsi on pages 699 and ff.

The Akhas or Kaws are probably the most numerous and widely distributed of the hill tribes of Këngtung. Their language appears to be connected with La'hu and Lihsaw, but the resemblance is not very close. I have placed them provisionally in this group. See Gazetteer of Upper Burma, Vol. I, Pt. I, pages 588 and ff. Vocabulary on pages 692 and ff.

The Akö are probably a half-breed race. They are closely related to the Akha and also dwell in Kēngtūng. Their language is very similar to Akha, and in the case of the pronouns, closely resembles La'hu. There is no record of the Akha pronouns. See Gazetteer of Upper Burma, Vol. I, Pt. I, page 594. Vocabulary on page 694.

The Li-sus are a transfrontier tribe who live on the upper courses of the Salween and Me-kong. Their language, so far as we can judge from the meagre vocabulary available, is allied to that of La'hu and Lihsaw, and, through them to that of Burmese. See Gazetteer of Upper Burma, Vol. I, Pt. I, page 616. Vocabulary on page 671.

The head-quarters of the Musus or Mossos are at Yetche, near the Me-khong, a little south of Tseku, about the 28th parallel of north latitude. They call themselves Na-chi or Na-chri. They are a transfrontier tribe, and the one meagre vocabulary which we possess points to a close connexion of their language with that of the Li-sus. See Gazetteer of Upper Burma, Vol. I, Pt. I, page 616. Vocabulary on page 671.

#### D.—Ungrouped Languages.

The following appear to be Tibeto-Burman, but, with the materials at my command, I am unable to say how they should be grouped.

The Lolos are a transfrontier tribe, whose home is the part of Ssu-ch'uan included in the large bend made by the Yangtzu River in 103° east Longitude. Thence they have spread south into Yünnan and east into Kueichao, and are found in scattered communities as far as Ssumao and the southern frontier. They call themselves Lo-su and Ngo-su, and in some dialects Ne-su. See Gazetteer of Upper Burma, Vol. I, Pt. I, pages 613 and ff. On page 670 there is given a vocabulary of the Lolo spoken in Mēng-hwa village. The language is said to resemble Lihsaw, but I do not find this to be borne out by this vocabulary. On page 598 it is stated that some authorities consider that Lolo should be grouped with Burmese.

The Lantens are a Yao tribe found in Kengtung. The few words of Yao which are available give no real clue as to the class fication of the race. It may fairly confidently be said that they have no race connection with the Tai, the Wa-Palaung, or the La'hu Lisu stocks. The most probable conjecture is that they are an off-shoot or a half-breed race of the Hmeng or Miao-tzu. See Gazetteer of Upper Burma, Vol. I, Pt. I, pages 604 and ff. Vocabulary on pages 671. Account of the Hmeng or Miao-tzu on pages 597 and ff.

Ming Chi'ang. Vocabulary on pages 670 and ff.

Mahe. Ditto.

Pyin or Pyen. Vocabulary on pages 717 and ff.

### MRU.

The Mrūs are settled in the Arakan Hills and in the Chittagong Hill Tracts. Their name is given as Mro by Sir W. Hunter, but his authority was Captain Lewin, who spells the name Mrū. Sir Arthur Phayre says about them:—

'This is a hill tribe now much reduced from its ancient state. They once dwelt on the river Kulādān and its feeders, but have been gradually driven out by the Kamī tribe. They have therefore emigrated to the West, and occupy hills on the border between Arakan and Chittagong. The Rādzaweng, or history of the Arakanese kings, refers to this tribe as already in the country when the Myamma [i.e. Burmese] race entered it. It states also that one of this tribe was chosen king of Arakan about the fourteenth century of the Christian era. The traditions recorded in the same work also imply that the Mrū and Myam-ma races are of the same lineage, though this connection is denied by the Arakanese of the present day, who regard the Mrū tribe as "wild men" living in a degraded state, and consider that it would be disgraceful to associate with them. The number of the Mrū tribe in Arakan amounts to about 2,800 souls. Their language is unwritten. They call themselves  $Mr\bar{u}$ . Toung  $Mr\bar{u}$  [wild Mrū] is a name given to some of their clans by the Arakanese.  $Mr\bar{u}$  is also used by the Arakanese as a generic term for all the hill tribes of their country. The word Khyeng is occasionally used in the same sense.'

The number of Mrūs in Arakan, at the census of 1891, was 15,891. In the Chittagong Hill Tracts Mrū was spoken by 100 individuals in the Chakma, and by 2,000 in the Boh Mong Chief's circle. The total number of speakers was therefore:—

	Burma	•	•	•	•		•	•			15,891
•	Boh Mong		•	•					•		2,000
	Chakma					•				•	100
								To	TAL		17,991

The fullest account of this tribe is given by Captain Lewin in the work quoted under authorities below. Sir W. Hunter, in his Statistical Account of Bengal, has reprinted this description in a shorter form, and from this latter work the following notes are taken:—

'The Mros are a tribe which formerly dwelt in the Arākān hills; they now live principally to the west of the river Sangu, and along the Mätämuri river within the Chittagong Hill Tracts. They assert that they were driven from Arākān by the Kumis, and some few years ago a bloody feud existed between them, and affrays often took place. The spread of British influence among these tribes has now put a stop to such encounters. . . . In physique, they are tall powerful men, dark complexioned, with no Mongolian type in their features. They are a peaceable, timid people, and in a dispute among themselves do not fight, but call in an exorcist, who tells them the decision of the spirits in the matter. They have three gods,—riz., Turāi, the Great Father; Sang-Tung, the hill spirit; and Oreng, the deity of the rivers. . . . They have no regular ideas as to a future state. Their ordinary oath is by gun,  $d\bar{a}o$ , and the tiger. On solemn occasions they swear by one of their gods, to whom at the same time a sacrifice must be offered. The breaking of an oath of this description they believe will be certainly punished by disease, ill-luck, and death. A young man has to serve three years for his wife in his father-in-law's house; or if wealthy, this preliminary can be dispensed with by paying 200 or 300 rupees. The principal marriage ceremony consists of feasting and drinking. Before marriage the sexes have unrestrained intercourse. A child is named the day after its birth. In cases of divorce, the husband is repaid all that he gave for his wife, and she has to leave all her ornaments behind her. A second marriage among women is unusual, but a widow may remarry. On a man dying and leaving a young family, his eldest and nearest adult male relative takes the family and the deceased's wife to live with him. The Mros bury their dead. If a man has sons and daughters, and they marry, he lives with his youngest child, who inherits all property on the death of the father. Two sorts of slavery are recognisedcaptives taken in war, and debtor slaves; but both are treated alike. They fix the site of their villages by the dreaming of dreams. . . . They weave their own clothes from cotton grown by themselves. The men wear only a strip of cloth round the waist which is passed between the legs, and the women nothing beyond a short petticoat. They seem to think that their tribe is dying out. They say that in their fathers' time men used to live to the age of a hundred years, but that now the average duration of life does not extend beyond fifty or sixty years.' a 8

It should be noted that Mrū is quite different from Mrung, the common name for Tipurā in the Chittagong Hill Tracts.

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Spearman, R. H.,—The British Burma Gazetteer. Vol. i, Rangoon, 1880. Note on Khami and Mro on p. 153.

HUGHES, MAJOR W. GWYNNE,—The Hill Tracts of Arakan. Rangeon, 1881. Note on the Mro on pp. 11 and f. States that Kamees and Mros are of one family.

EALES, H. L.,—Census of 1891. Burma. Report. Vol. i, Rangoon, 1892. Mention of Mro on pp. 147 and 199.

A translation of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and a List of Standard Words and Phrases have been received from the Chittagong Hill Tracts. They are extremely corrupt and untrustworthy, but they are the only foundation of the notes on Mrū grammar which follow. Sir George Campbell's specimen is so full of misprints that it has been of very little use. The grammatical sketch as well as the specimens printed below must, therefore, be used with great caution.

Pronunciation.—The spelling is very inconsistent, and it is often impossible to decide what the actual pronunciation is. In  $ts\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$ ,  $ts\bar{e}$ - $m\bar{a}$ , daughter,  $\bar{a}$  seems to be the correct vowel; compare  $ch\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$ , son. The personal pronoun of the first person singular is written  $\bar{a}ng$  in the specimen, and ung in the list. The correct form is probably ang, the same form as in Bodo. A is probably also the sound pronounced in  $m\bar{a}$  or mung, to go. Captain Lewin has  $kum\bar{a}n$ . Ai is apparently written for e in prai- $y\bar{a}h$ , two, in the specimen. The list and other vocabularies give pre. E is probably also the actual sound in pai and pe, to give, and perhaps in oai, woi, wey, or  $w\bar{a}$ , to be. Campbell has wey. The same verb perhaps also occurs in kom hu-hu owoi, bread enough to spare. The postposition 'to', 'from', is written koi, koy- $\bar{e}$ ,  $k\bar{a}eh$ , koyey, keey, and khoi. Campbell has keux, which is certainly a misprint. E is probably written for i in  $m\bar{e}a$ , what? the form mya occurring in most places. The negative particle is written doi, dui, and de. Captain Lewin has doi;  $d\bar{o}$  or  $d\bar{u}$  is probably the correct form.

A euphonic y occurs in forms such as  $pre-y\bar{a}$  or  $prai-y\bar{a}h$  besides  $pre-\bar{a}$ , two. In  $loi-y\bar{a}$ , one, iy is apparently written for y.

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The difference between hard and soft consonants seems to be small. Thus, we find goi and koi, in, to;  $g\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{a}ng$  and  $k\bar{a}$ - $sy\bar{a}ng$ , all, together; klenge and klengke, than;  $t\bar{e}b$ - $\bar{a}$  and  $t\bar{e}p$ - $\bar{a}$ , strike, etc.

Aspirates are interchanged with unaspirated consonants; thus, khoi and koi, to; khyan-kyan, much; khong-kong, good; phai-mi and pai-mi, he, etc. Khong-kong, good, is probably the Burmese word kong, the common word for 'good' in Mrū being yūng.

Final consonants are often silent. Thus we find  $b\tilde{a}$  and  $b\tilde{a}k$ , a plural suffix; loke, loke- $y\bar{a}$ , lok- $y\bar{a}$ , and lo- $y\bar{a}$ , one; lah- $m\bar{a}$  and  $\bar{a}$ -lak- $m\bar{a}$ , far;  $p\bar{a}k$  and  $p\bar{a}$ , pig; tud-a and tu-a, to, etc. The h which is often added after a final vowel is perhaps only a tone indicator. Thus, loi- $y\bar{a}$  and loi-yah, one.

Ch is probably pronounced ts, for we find  $ts\bar{a}-m\bar{a}$ , daughter;  $ts\bar{a}$ , child;  $ch\bar{a}-p\bar{a}$ ,  $ts\bar{a}$  and  $ch\bar{a}$ , male child, son. Compare Burmese  $th\bar{a}$ , Arakanese  $ts\bar{a}$ , child.  $ts\bar{a}$  seems also to mean 'small.' It is written  $ts\bar{a}$  in No. 233. Chh probably represents  $ts\bar{a}$ ; thus,  $ts\bar{a}$  thu

M is interchanged with ng in  $k\bar{u}m$  or kung, back. Gn is often written for ng; thus, agna, a servant; gnom and  $ng\bar{o}m$ , be, etc. Final ng seems to be very faintly sounded. Thus Hodgson gives loung, one, where the specimens have lo, loh, or lok; we find rung and run, buy; u and  $y\bar{u}ng$ , good, etc. We often find o or ow instead of w; thus, wang, oang, and owan, to go to; woi, oai, and owoi, to be, etc.

Articles.—The numeral loh or  $lo-y\bar{a}$  may be used as an Indefinite article, while definiteness is expressed by means of demonstrative pronouns or relative clauses.

**Nouns.**—The prefix  $\bar{a}$  is often used before nouns, especially before such as denote relationship; thus,  $\bar{a}ng$   $\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$ , my father. It seems to be used, like the corresponding prefix in Burmese, in order to form nouns from verbs. Thus,  $\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{a}$ , servant; a- $m\bar{a}th\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}la$ , harlots;  $\bar{a}$ - $w\bar{a}th$ , cloth (Burmese awat, from wat, to put on).

Gender.—Gender is only apparent in the case of animate beings. It is sometimes, in the case of human beings, distinguished by using different words; thus,  $p\bar{a}$ , father;  $\bar{u}$ , mother:  $nao-m\bar{a}$ , (younger) brother;  $twa-m\bar{a}$ , sister. The male suffix, in the case of human beings, is  $p\bar{a}$ , and the female  $m\bar{a}$ ; thus,  $ch\bar{a}-p\bar{a}$ , son;  $ts\bar{a}-m\bar{a}$ , daughter. The gender of animals is distinguished by means of the suffixes  $l\bar{a}$ , male, and  $m\bar{a}$ , female; thus,  $tsi\bar{a}-l\bar{a}$ , a bull;  $tsi\bar{a}-m\bar{a}$ , a cow:  $roa-l\bar{a}$ , a he goat;  $roa-m\bar{a}$ , a she goat.

Number.—There seem to be two numbers, the singular and the plural. When it is necessary to distinguish the plural, some word meaning 'multitude', 'all,' etc., is added. Thus,  $p\bar{a}$   $b\hat{a}-b\hat{a}$ , fathers;  $y\bar{u}ng-mi$  bai-bai, good men; machhiva  $y\bar{u}ng$   $b\hat{a}k-b\hat{a}$ , good women. Bai, and perhaps also  $b\hat{a}k$  or  $b\hat{a}$ , seems to be identical with boi in koak-ta-boi, spent-everything. The word  $m\bar{a}t\bar{e}n$  in  $m\bar{a}-mi$   $t\bar{a}nk\bar{a}$   $m\bar{a}t\bar{e}n$ , those rupees, is perhaps also a plural suffix.

Case.—The Nominative and the Accusative do not generally take any suffix. In  $pai-mi-k\bar{a}$  kom-lai, he was in want, we apparently have a nominative suffix  $k\bar{a}$ . The same suffix occurs in Burmese, especially in adversative clauses.

It is not certain whether there occurs any proper suffix of the agent. In ung nā tēbā, I strike; en nea tēp, thou strikest; ung na yā tep, I may strike, nā and nea are perhaps such suffixes. But nā also occurs after the subject of an intransitive verb; thus, ung nā mung, I go. In āng-ing ā-kā-mi wān, I getting property, my share, ing is perhaps the suffix of the agent.

3 D 2

The suffix  $k\bar{a}eh$ , koi, keey, ka, or go is sometimes added to the object; thus,  $\bar{a}$ - $ch\bar{a}$ - $ko\bar{i}$   $\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$  khiah, the son the father (subject) saw;  $\bar{a}ng$ -go pai, me-to give, etc. Compare the corresponding suffix ko in Burmese.

The Genitive is denoted by putting the governed before the governing noun; thus, in  $p\bar{a}$  kim keey, thy father's house in. The suffix  $k\bar{a}eh$  may be added; thus, pai-mi- $k\bar{a}eh$   $p\bar{a}ng$ -koth, his neck. In  $rangk\bar{a}$   $korng\bar{a}$  un-ning  $\bar{a}$ -munkhat-ko, this horse's years howmany, un is inserted between the two nouns. Compare Khami ung and in, Burmese in, i. The Vocative may be formed by suffixing o; thus,  $\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$ -o, O father. Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are:—eh, in, at; hai, with; koi, in, to; kung-eh, at the back of, behind;  $tad\bar{e}$  or tuda, to, from, etc.

Adjectives.—Adjectives sometimes follow, and sometimes precede, the noun they qualify; thus  $mr\bar{u}$   $y\bar{u}ng$ -mi pre- $\bar{a}$ , men good two;  $y\bar{u}ng$ -mi  $mr\bar{u}$  bai 
Numbers.—The numerals are given in the list of words. They sometimes follow, and sometimes precede, the noun they qualify; thus, mru loi-ya and loi-ya mru, one man. The list of words has loke, one. The final e is also written eya,  $y\bar{a}$ , yah, and ya, and the k preceding it is generally dropped. It is therefore probably silent. Thus, mru loi-yā chā-pā prai-yāh oai, man one-of sons two were. Yā or  $\bar{a}$  and yāh are regularly added to a numeral when the qualified noun denotes persons. It is dropped when animals are spoken of; thus, kūi loh, dog one, a dog. Yā is therefore probably a generic suffix. The generic particles are therefore probably suffixes, and not prefixes, just as in Burmese where they are suffixed when the numeral is less than ten. Yā corresponds to Burmese youk, Maghi ya, a generic particle used to denote rational beings. The generic suffix used with reference to money seems to be lap; thus, mā-mi chhūng prē-lap kon khwai, this-of price two-rupees and a-half. The generic particles are apparently also used alone, as a kind of indefinite article; thus, ā-tong ā-wāth, a cloth; fā-nai a-tong, shoes; roā apum, a kid. A-tong corresponds to the Burmese generic particle a-thin, (written a-than), a piece of cloth. No generic particle is used in cases like roa lā loh, a he goat; ruthbuth-lo, a ring, etc.

Pronouns.—The following are the Personal pronouns:—

āng, ung, I.

āng, my.

en, in, thou.

en, thy.

en, thy.

en-kam, thine.

en-ni, you.

pai-mi, he.

pai-mi, his.

pai-mi, his.

pai-mi, ka-buāh, they.

Several other forms occur; many of them, however, are only different spellings of the above. Instead of angeng, we, we also find a-ing and anging. The latter form may be a miswriting, but it may also be compared with Bara zang; Lalung, jing-rau, we. The list interchanges the second and third persons plural in two places. It also has the form or-mi, they. This word means 'him' in the specimen.

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Demonstrative pronouns.—Pai, pai-yā, and pai-mi, that;  $m\bar{a}$ -mi, that. A pronoun rang-kā, this, seems to occur in No. 221, rang-kā korngā, this horse. The Demonstrative pronouns are generally used as personal pronouns of the third person. The suffix mi seems to be that of the relative participle; thus, na-mi tong-chang, this what? lit. apparently 'being-what?' Na-mi seems to be derived from the verb  $n\bar{a}$ , Burmese  $n\bar{e}$ , to be. The suffix mi is dropped when the prenoun is used as a prefix; thus, mattwama, that is  $m\bar{a}$ -twa-mā, his daughter.

There are no Relative pronouns. A relative participle seems to be formed by adding the suffix mi; thus,  $\bar{a}ng$ -ing  $\bar{a}$ - $k\bar{a}$ -mi  $w\bar{a}n$ , me-by to-be-got property, the property which I shall get. The same form seems to occur in passages such as:— $ch\bar{a}$   $\bar{a}$ -so-mi, son young-being, the younger son;  $p\bar{a}k$ - $ch\bar{a}$ -mi, pigs-eaten-what, pigs' food, husks; to- $r\bar{a}$ -mi won, all that I have, etc. The suffix is sometimes  $m\bar{a}$ , and not mi; thus,  $\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{a}k$ - $m\bar{a}$  pren, a far country; kim-koi  $w\bar{a}ng$ - $m\bar{a}$ -kha, house-to coming-time-at, when he came near to the house; compare Shö  $kho\bar{a}$ , time-at, when.

Interrogative pronouns.— $M\bar{e}a$ , or  $my\bar{a}$ , who? tong, what? tong-phā, why? munya and  $\bar{a}$ -munkhat, how many? mun-khat, how much?

An *Indefinite pronoun* seems to be formed by adding the suffix po to the first numeral; thus, loiyā-po payā-hom-doi pai-mi, any body gave-food-not to him.

**Verbs.**—There are no pronominal prefixes used in order to denote the person and number of the subject. In *en kung-ke-ey ā-myā tsā-chha ā-mung*, thy back-at whose boy goes? we have perhaps a pronominal prefix of the third person in the  $\bar{a}$  of  $\bar{a}$ -mung.

The root alone, without any suffix, is generally used in order to denote the present and past times; thus, ung nā, I am; pai-mi wai, he was. Several suffixes may be added, but I am unable to give the exact meaning of them. A suffix ā occurs in forms such as:—ung nā tēb-ā, I strike; chin-āh, gathered; deb-a, entreated, etc. Another suffix is kho; thus, en mung-khoh, thou goest; konggnūnecho-kho, I am dying; ung mung-khoh, I went; chintatūng-kho, sent. The suffix khai generally seems to convey the idea of past time; thus, kong-khai, was dead; kā-khai, has been found; oang-kla-khai,—fell-on (his neck); koi-khai, went, etc. But it is also used to denote the present time; thus, pai-mi mung-khai, he goes. Compare the verbal suffix kha in Maghī. The suffix ta or tā is used in a similar way; thus, lun-ta, asked; koak-ta-boi, wasted all; pa-rum-tā, heard. It is sometimes followed by khai; thus, pai-mi tēp-tā-khai, he strikes; ung tēp-tā-khai, I have struck; chyong-tā-khai, he has married, etc.

The suffix khai, combined with a prefix khām, also occurs in ung khām tēp-khai, I am striking. Ung-aey tēp-ung occurs as the corresponding imperfect; I was striking.

The root alone is apparently also used as a Future. Thus,  $\bar{a}ng$  koi-pun  $\bar{a}$ -p $\bar{a}$  tua  $\bar{a}ng$ -koi,  $\bar{a}ng$  taipay, I will arise, my-father to I-will-go, I will say. The form taipay per haps contains a suffix ay. The suffix  $\bar{a}$  is used to form the future in ung-t $\bar{e}b$ - $\bar{a}$ , I shall strike. I cannot analyse the form ung-n $\bar{e}$ -chyan, I shall be. Chyan seems to be identical with keom, to sit, for which Campbell gives chum. The same word apparently also occurs in ung-y $\bar{a}$  keon-khai, I may be; kushi-chang-kom, in order to be merry, etc.

The root alone is also used as an *Imperative*. Thus, mung, go;  $ch\bar{a}$ , eat;  $n\bar{a}$ , be; pai, give. Sometimes a suffix  $\bar{a}$  is added; thus,  $t\bar{e}b$ - $\bar{a}$ , strike; tan- $\bar{a}$ , put, etc. This form seems to be identical with the infinitive. In the first person plural we find a suffix so, apparently corresponding to Burmese tso, in khushe-so, let us be merry. Other

forms for the same are chu āng-jing chā-hom-chi, let us eat; ang-eng gā-sāng tai-owoi khushī-oi, we all should make rejoicing. These forms are not clear to me.

The root alone is also used as an Infinitive or Verbal noun; thus, pai-mi mu duchākowoi, he his-belly to-fill wished. The literal translation of du-chākowoi seems to be
'full-eating-was.' In kohi-khoi kung-koi, after having spent, lit., spending back-on,
this verbal noun is used as a genitive. The suffix ā is added in tēp-ā, to strike. The
suffix of the infinitive of purpose seems to be thing; thus, pai-mi prangā-eh koithing pā chin-tatūng-kho, he fields-into (lit. outside) to-feed pigs sent (him). The suffix
kom seems to be used in the same way; thus, āng āng khān-pon tuda khushi-changkom, I my friends with merry-being-for; āng en chā aplet-kom nā-doi, I am not worthy
to be thy son. Aplet-kom seems to be an infinitive of purpose; nā-doi means 'is not,'
or 'am not.' Compare the use of kom in pai-mi kom, him for. The same suffix seems
to occur in toi-cha-gom, to eat.

Participles.—The suffixes mi and  $m\bar{a}$  used in forming the Relative participle have been mentioned with relative pronouns. The suffix mi is also used to form a Noun of agency; thus, roa-thing-mi, a shepherd, lit. goat-tender. An Adverbial participle seems to be formed by prefixing  $\bar{a}$  and suffixing oi; thus,  $\bar{a}$ -sing-oi, safe. The form  $mung-kr\bar{a}ng$ , going, is perhaps also an adverbial participle. The various tenses are used instead of the Conjunctive participle. There is apparently no form in the specimen which can be called a real participle of this kind. And the list gives keon-khai, having been;  $t\bar{e}p$ - $t\bar{a}$ -khai-khoh, having struck; and mung-tink-khoh, gone, with the same suffixes as are used after the finite tenses. Forms such as chin- $\bar{a}h$ , gathering, are formed by adding a postposition  $\bar{a}$  to the verbal noun.

Passive.—The list of words presents the following forms:—ung ke tep-ung, I am struck; ung kham tep-khai, I was struck; ung kham tep chātai, I shall be struck. The verb kham seems to be identical with Burmese khan, to suffer. A similar verb is suffixed in Khami and Shö. Ung ke is perhaps the object, 'me', and ung ke tep-ung perhaps means 'me striking.' In the specimen we find kā-khai, was found again, in form identical with the active.

Compound verbs are extensively used, but I am unable to analyse most of them. The following prefixes occur:— $g\bar{a}$  and  $k\bar{a}$ ; koi; pa; po; tai; toi; wang; and  $y\bar{a}$ . Thus,  $g\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{a}ng$  and  $k\bar{a}$ - $sy\bar{a}ng$ , to join, be together, perhaps from chang, to be: koi-pun, to arise; pa-rum, to hear; (owan)-po- $l\bar{a}$ , to bring; tai-pa, to speak, to say; toi-chang, to serve; toi- $ch\bar{a}$ , to eat: wang-ting, to come back; oang-kla, to fall; owan-po- $l\bar{a}$ , to bring. The suffix wang, oang, or owan, is perhaps identical with the verb wang, to come.  $Y\bar{a}$  is prefixed in forms such as ung  $y\bar{a}$ -keong-khai, I may be; ung-na  $y\bar{a}$ -tep, I may strike. It seems as if the modifying word is generally prefixed. Sometimes, however, it is also suffixed. Thus, um  $t\bar{e}pt\bar{a}$  khyan-kyan, i.e., ung  $t\bar{e}p$ - $t\bar{a}$ -khyan-khyan, I have-struck-much; koak- $t\bar{a}$ -boi, (he) wasted-all;  $pay\bar{a}$ -hom-doi, gave-food-not; chu  $\bar{a}ng$ -jing  $ch\bar{a}$ -hom-chi, let us eat-food. It will be seen that the suffixes are generally inserted between the principal verb and the modifying addition. Such combinations are, therefore, no real compounds. But in toi-chang-lo, I served, we have perhaps a real compound with the latter component modifying the former. The word woi in cn  $\bar{a}ng$  hai  $k\bar{a}$ - $sy\bar{a}ng$ -woi, thou me with art-always-together, is perhaps the verb substantive.

The Negative particle is doi; thus, chāk oai-doi, food was not.

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An Interrogative particle is perhaps ko in rang-kā korngā un-ning āmun-khat ko, this horse's years how many?

Order of words.—I have been unable to find any rule for the order of words. Every possible combination occurs.

I have printed the specimen and the list of words with only a few corrections. In the specimen I have hyphened out the different words and syllables, and corrected the translation in a few places. The specimens write sometimes  $\bar{a}i$  and sometimes ai. I have given ai throughout.

[No. 39.]

# TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

## BURMA GROUP.

#### MRU.

(CHITTAGONG HILL TRACTS.)

Mru loi-yā chā-pā prai-yāh oai. Chā ā-so-mi ā-pā koi tai-pa, 'Anging Man one-of 80118 tvoowere. Son younger the-father to said. ā-kā-mi wān āng-go pai.' Pai-mi rathyāh wān pay-ā. Häng-käkrä-äh sharegoodsme-to give.' Ħе divided goods gave. Not-long-after ā-so-mi chā plan chin-āh, pai-mi ā-lāk-mā pren koi-khai. Pai-khoi 801 younger again gathering, he far country went. There Khoi-khoi kung-koi pai-mi sun-thāka wān. pai-mi pren-koi mru chāk after he wasted that goods. Spent country-in men food oai-doy; pai-mi-kā kom-lai. Pai-mi pren-koi loi-yah mru was-not; he was-in-want. Ħе country-in one man kā-svāng. Pai-mi prangā-eh koi-thing рā chin-ta-tung-kho pai-mi-kāeh. joined. He field-into to-feed pigssent him. pai-mi toi-cha-gom pai-mi mu du-chākowoi. Loi-vā-po pavā Huskshe eat-to hisbelly to-fill-wished. Anybody gave hom-doi pai-mi. Kung-āhā pai-mi tai-pa, 'Āng ā-pā buth-buth-meong a-gna food-not him. Afterwards he said, 'My father's how-many huhu owoi, ang chak-rai kong-gnanecho-kho. Ang koi-pun (i.e. a-nga) kom vants bread enough is, I hunger perish. Ι will-rise tua äng-koi; äng tai-pay, "Ā-pā-o, āng gnara koāng koi, I will-say, "Father-O, I sinned heaven the-father to will-go.; I en chā aplet-kom nā-doi, āng tua en agna."' Kung-eh pai-mi thy son to-be-called (?) am-not, me make thy servant." Afterwards he the-father tuda koi-khai. Ā-lāk-mā-koi-khā-oh ā-chā-koi ā-pā khiah. hāno. to went. Far-way-off-when the-father saw, had-compassion, the-son pai-mi poth-khai pai-mi-kaeh pang-koth oang-kla-khai pai-mi-kaeh sora-nam-a. he ran his neck fell him kissed. The-son tai-pā, 'Ā-pā-o, āng gnara koang koi. en-tuda: āng en the-father-to said, 'Father-O, I sinned heaven to, thee-before; thy aplet-kom nā-doi.' Ā-pā agna koi tai-pa, 'Owan-po-lā ā-tong ā-wāth son to-be-called (?) am-not.' The-father servants to said, ' Bring dress haya-kupa, pai-mi-koi kroa pe ruth-buth lo, khopa fā-nai ā-tong pa. put-on-him. his finger put ring a, feet shoes a-pair give.

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Chu-āng-jing-chā-hom-chi, khushe-so, tompokā āng chā kong-khai plan sing-khai, Let-us-eat, merry-let-us-be, for my son dead-was again alive-came, pai-mi tāmā-khai plan kā-khai.' Kabuāh khusi-khok.

he lost-was again found-was.' They merry-began.

Āko ā-chā ā-tā-mi tai-koi wā-khai. Kim-koi wāng-mā-kha taiplai Now his-son elder field-in was. House-to came-when dancing-and-music pai-mi pa-rum-tā. Pai-mi āgnā loi-ya lun-ta, 'Na-mi tong chāng?' Pai-mi tai-pa. he heard. He servant one asked, 'This what is? He « En wāng-ting-kho, pai-mi wang-ting ā-sing-oi; en nau-ma ā-pā pav-ā 'Thy younger-brother came-arrived, he returned safe: thy father poi.' Pai-mi kon-mrāo-khai; kim-la-koi-nāo-kup-dui. Niongka ā-pā kraāh-kaah angry-was; house-inside-enter-would-not. Therefore the-father feast.' He poth-khai, pai-mi-ka deb-a. Pai-mi ā-pā-koi tai-pa, ang meong-khoth-khok-ning himentreated. He his-father-to said, I many-so-years en toi-chang-lo, en lai dith-cha-po āng kowa-doi; ang-koi roā apum thee serve, thy word at-any-time I transgressed-not; me-to goatoneen peah-doi, āng āng khān-pon tuda khushi-chang-kom. En chā thou gavest-not, I my friends merry-being-jor. withThy80% āmāth-āmāla hai koak-ta-boi, kim-koi wāng, en peah poi pai-miharlots with spent-all, house-to came, thou gavest feasthim-Pai-mi or-mi koi tai-pa, 'Ā-chā, en āng hai kā-syāng-woi, to-rā-mi kom. won for. him to said, 'Son, thou me with together-art, whatever property en-kam gnom. Ang-eng gā-sāng taiowoi-khushi-oi, tompoka en nau-ma thine Weallshould-make-merry, for thy younger-brother kong-khai aplan sing-khai, pai-mi tāmā-khai, āplān kā-khai.' dead-was again alive-came, he lost-was, again found-was.'

# STANDARD WORDS AND SENTENCES.

E <sub>1</sub>	nglish.			Mrū (Chittagong Hill Tracts).
1. One .	•	•	•	Loke.
2. Two .		•	•	Prē.
3. Three	•	-	•	Tsüm.
4. Four .	•	•	-	Ta-li.
5. Five .	•	•	-	Tā-ngā.
6. Six .	•	•	-	To-rāk.
7. Seven	•	•	•	Ra-nit.
8. Eight	•	•	•	Reat.
9. Nine .	•	-	-	Tāk-kū.
10. Ten .	•	•	-	Ha-mūit.
11. Twenty	•	•	-	Pir-mi.
12. Fifty.	•	•	-	Ngā-kom.
13. Hundred	•	•	-	A-kom.
14. I .	•	•	-	Ung.
15. Of me	•	:	-	Ung lai.
16. Mine .	•	•	-	Ung.
17. ₩e .	•	•	-	Ung-ing.
18. Of us.	•	<b>:</b>	-	Ung-ing lai.
19. Our .	•	-	-	Ung-ing koy-a.
20. Thou .	•	•	-	En.
21. Of thee	•	•	-	En lai.
22. Thine.	•	•	-	En.
23. You .	•	•	-	En-ni.
24. Of you	•	•	-	En-ni lai.
		<del></del>		· Rawa - 995

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Engl	ish.			Mrū (Chittsgong Hill Tracts).
25. Your .	•	-	-	En-ni.
26. He .	-	-	-	Phai-mi.
27. Of him	-		-	Phai-mi lai.
28. His .	•	. •	-	Phai-mi.
29. They .	-	. ·	-	Or-mi.
30. Of them	•	-	-	Or-mi lai.
31. Their	-	•	-	Phai-mi kē a
32. Hand	-	-	-	Bong.
33. Foot.	-	-	-	Klong.
34. Nose .	-	-	-	Nā-kong.
35. Eye .	•	•	•	Mik.
36. Mouth	-	•	•	Nor.
37. Tooth	-	•	•	Yeing.
38. Ear .	•	-	•	Phā-rām.
39. Hair .	-	•	•	Tsām.
40. Head .	•	-	•	La.
41. Tongue	•	-		Dai.
42. Belly .	•	-	•	Mū.
43. Back	•	-		Küm.
44. Iron .	-	-	•	Longha.
45. Gold .	•	•	•	Ka.
46. Silver	-	•	-	Tai.
47. Father	•	•	•	Pa.
48. Mother	•	•	-	σ.
49. Brother	•	•	1 7	Não-mã (s.e., nau-mã).
50. Sister	•	. •		- Toa-mā.
51. Man .	•	•		. Morti (i.e., mrti).

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Engli	sh.			Mrū (Chittagong Hill Tracts).
52. Woman	•	•	-	Michiwā.
53. Wife .	•	-	-	Machhi.
54. Child.	-	-		Tsä.
55. Son .	•	•		Kechak tsä.
56. Daughter	•	•	-	Tsē-mā (i.e., tsā-mā).
57. Slave	•	•	•	Nār.
58. Cultivator	•	•	-	Ton-lai.
59. Shepherd	•	-	-	Roa-thing-mi.
60. God .	•	-	-	Thaurai.
61. Devil.	•	•	•	Āthowa.
62. Sun .	•	-	-	Tsāt.
63. Moon.	•	•	-	La-mā.
64 Star .	•	-	•	Kē-re.
65. Fire .	•	-	•	Mai.
66. Water	•	•	•	Tāi.
67. House	•	•	•	Kim.
68. Horse	•	-	-	Kornga.
69. Cow .	-	-	-	.Tsiā.
70. Dog .	•	-	•	Kūi.
71. Cat .	•	•	-	Min.
72. Cock .	•	•	•	Wā-klung.
73. Duck	•	-	•	Kūmpai.
74. Ass •	•	•	-	******
75. Camel	•	•	ľ	
76. Bird .	•	•		Wa.
77. Go .	•	•	•	Mung.
78. Eat .	•	•	•	Cha.

Eng	glish.			Mrå (Chittagong Hill Tracts).
<b>79.</b> Sit .	-	•		Keom.
80. Come	-	•	•	Wang.
81. Beat	•	-	•	Tep-a.
82. Stand	•	•		Yong.
83. Die .	•	-		Kong.
84. Give	•	•	•	Pē.
85. Run.	•	-	•	Le-mo-poi.
86. •Up .	•	-	-	Keong-mā.
87. Near	•	•		Ton-chē.
88. Down	•	•	-	Nem-che.
89. Far .	-	-	-	Lah-mā.
90. Before	•	•	-	Rhi-mi.
91. Behind	•	-	-	Kung-ge.
92. Who	-	•	-	Mēa.
93. What	•	•		Tong.
94. Why	•	-		Tong-phā.
95. And	•	•	-1	Ādong-ey.
96. But .	•	•	-	Na-mi-ta-ey ung-koi.
97. If .	•	•		Won-kā-ēy.
98. Yes .	-	• .	-	Na.
99. No .	•	•	-	Nā-doi.
100. Alas.	•	• .	-	ŭ.
101. A father	•	•	-	Ра 10-уа.
102. Of a fathe	93°	••	-	Pā lo-yā lai.
108. To a fathe	er	•	-	Pā lo-yā tadē.
104. From a fe	ather	-		Pā lo-yā tadē.
105. Two fath	ers	•	-	På pre-yå.

English.	Mrd (Chittagong Hill Tracts).
106. Fathers	Pā bā-bā.
107. Of fathers	Pā bā-bā lai.
108. To fathers	Pā bā-bā tadē.
109. From fathers . • •	Pā bā-bā ke-ey.
110. A daughter .	Taā-mā lok-yā.
111. Of a daughter .	. Tsā-mā lok-yā lai
112. To a daughter .	. Tsā-mā lok-yā tadē.
113. From a daughter	. Ditto.
114. Two daughters	· Pre-yā taā-mā-
115. Daughters	- Bai-bai tsā-mā.
116. Of daughters .	Bai-bai tsā-mā lai.
117. To daughters .	
118. From daughters	Tsā-mā bai-bai ke-ey.
119. A good man .	. Loke-yā mrū khong-kong-ya.
120. Of a good man .	. Loke-yā mrū yūng-mi lai.
121. To a good man .	. Mrū yūng-mi tadē.
122. From a good man	Loke-yā mrū yūng-mi tadē.
123. Two good men .	. Mrā yāng-mi pre-ā.
124. Good men.	. Yüng-mi bai-bai.
125. Of good men .	• Yung-mi mrū bai-bai lai:
126. To good men .	Yūng-mi mrū bai-bai tadē.
127. From good men	Yüng-mi mrü bai-bai kë-ey.
128. A good woman .	. Loke-yā machhiwa tlang-u- mā.
129. A bad boy .	. Loke-yā tsā yūng-dē.
130. Good women .	. Machhiwa yūng bāk-bā.
181. A bad girl	Machhiwa yūng-dē.
182, Good -	Yang.
	T

English.			Mrū (Chittagong Hill Tracts).
133. Better	•	-	Pai-mi lä-ey u.
134. Best .	•		Ne klëng-ë u.
135. High .	-	-	Tsyong-mā.
136. Higher .		-	Na-mi klēng-kē tsyong.
137. Highest .		-	Ditto
138. A horse .	•	-	Kornga loh.
139. A mare .	•	-	Korngā mā loh.
140. Horses .	•	-	Korngā bai-bai.
141. Mares .	•	-	Kornga mā bai-bai.
142. A bull .	;	-	Tsiā lā loh.
143. A cow .	•	-	Tsiā mā loh.
144. Bulls .	•		Tsiā lā bai-bai.
145. Cows .	•	-	Tsiā mā bai-bai.
146. A dog .	•	-	Küi loh.
147. A bitch .	•	-	Kūi mā loh.
148. Dogs .	•	-	Kūi bai-bai.
149. Bitches .	•	-	Kūi mā bai-bai.
150. A he goat	•	-	Roa la loh.
151. A female goat	•	-	Roa mā loh.
152. Goats .	•	-	Roa bai-bai.
153. A male deer	•	÷	Ngā-hue lā.
154. A female deer	•	•	Ngā-hue mā.
155. <b>Deer</b> .	• .	-	Ngā-hue bai-bai.
156. I am .	•	•	Ung nā.
157. Thou art .	•	٠.	En nā.
158. He is .	•	•	Pai-mi nā.
159. We are	-	•	Ung-ing nā.

English.	Mrt (Chittagong Hill Tracts).
160. You are	Kobūs nā.¹
161. They are	En-ni na.
162. I was	Ung wai.
163. Thou wast	En wai.
164. He was	Pai-mi wai.
165. We were	Ung-ing wai.
166. You were	En-ni wai.
167. They were	Pai-mi wai.
168. Be	Na.
169. To be	En-na.
170. Being	
171. Having been .	
172. I may be	. Ung yā keon-khai.
178. I shall be	. Ung në-chyan.
174. I should be .	• ••••
175. Beat	. Tēp.
176. To beat	. Tep-a.
177. Beating	· Tēp-mi.
178. Having beaten .	. Tēp-tā-khai-khoh.
179. I beat	- Ung nā tēb-ā.
189. Thou beatest .	. En nea tēp.
181. He beats	. Pai-mi tēp-tā-khai.
182. We beat	. A-ing tēb-ā.
183. You beat	. Kobua těp-tā-khai.3
184. They beat	. En-ni tēp-tā-khai.
191. I am beating .	. Ung khām-tēp-khai.
192. I was beating .	. Ung-a-cy tep-ung.

Nos. 160 and 161 are interchanged.

Nos. 185-190 were not given in the list. Burma-401

English.	Mrū (Chittagong Hill Tracts).
198. I had beaten	*****
194. I may beat	Ung nā yā tēp.
195. I shall beat <sup>1</sup>	Ung tēb-ā.
201. I should beat	Ditto.
202. I am beaten	Ung ke tëp-ung.
203. I was beaten	Ung kham tëp-khai.
204. I shall be beaten .	Ung kham tëp chātai.
205. I go	Ung nā mung.
206. Thou goest	En mung-khoh.
207. He goes <sup>2</sup>	Pai-mi mung-khai.
211. I went	Ung mung-khoh.
212. Thou wentest	En pā-mung-khoh.
213. He went <sup>3</sup>	Pai-mi mung-kboh.
217. Go	Mung.
218. Going	Mung kräng.
219. Gone	Mung tink khoh.
220. What is your name?	En ming myā?
221. How old is this horse?	Rangkā korngā un-ning ā- mun-khat ko?
222. How far is it from here to Kashmir?	Kashmir prên mun-khat lü ?
223. How many sons are there in your father's house?	In pā kim kē-ey tsā mun-ya woi ?
234. I have walked a long way to-day.	Unni ung ā-lāh-mā koy-ē nā chām poa ngom.
225. The son of my uncle is married to his sister.	Ung täräng tsä mattwa-ma koy-ë chhyong-tä-khai.
226. In the house is the saddle of the white horse.	Pai-mi khim ke-ey korngā koh gingwan kona mi hai korngā kum chym-ra kom
227. Put the saddle upon his back.	i way (eic)
228. I have beaten his son with namy stripes.	Pai-mi tea-ge muä hai um top-ta-khyan-kyan.

<sup>\*</sup> Nos. 198-200 were wanting in the list.

\* Nos. 208-210

\* Nos. 214-216

Burma-402

	English.	Mrti (Chittagong Hill Tracts).
<b>22</b> 9.	He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.	Ormi hung kai khyngmi ke- ey koy pë-a āchyk.
230.	He is sitting on a horse under that tree.	Sing-dow ey ka kornga kum-lu ke-ey son.
<b>2</b> 31.	His brother is taller than his sister.	Pai-mi twā-mā la-ey mā-m. syong-khai.
<b>2</b> 82.	The price of that is two rupees and a half.	Mā-mi chhūng prē-tāp hon khwai.
<b>2</b> 33.	My father lives in that small house.	Ā-pā pai-yā khim ja koy-ey woi.
<b>234</b> .	Give this rupee to him	Mā-mi tānkā pai-mī ke-ey pai-ya.
235.	Take those rupees from him.	Mā-mi tānkā mātēn pai-mi tūde kāppa.
236.	Beat him well and bind him with ropes.	Mā-mi ke-ey teb-ā khyan- khyan hānā kāppa pā le tom-mā.
237	Draw water from the well.	Kwālā ke-ey koi kung tūi.
238	. Walk before me	Ung pur-ke-ey ma.
239	. Whose boy comes behind you?	En kung-ke-cy ä-myä tsä ohha ä-mung?
<b>24</b> 0	. From whom did you buy that?	Myā-goi en run ?
241	. From a shopkeeper of the village.	Koa cheng koy-ey ung rung
		- bring
	<b>₩</b>	<u> </u>

